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**US Army Corps
of Engineers**
New Orleans District

**HISTORICAL RESEARCH AND ARCHEOLOGICAL
SURVEY OF THE HISTORIC PORTION OF
SOUTHERN UNIVERSITY, BATON ROUGE,
EAST BATON ROUGE PARISH, LOUISIANA**

Final Report

July 1999

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Prepared for

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13. ABSTRACT (Maximum 200 words) This report presents the results of archeological, historical, and standing structure evaluation of the Scott's Bluff portion of Southern University (16EBR159) in support of the New Orleans District, U. S. Army Corps of Engineers, plans to stabilize the eroding bluff at the western periphery of the university campus. The project area measured 16.6 acres. Backhoe trenches were excavated at the proposed locations of four catch basin. No intact cultural deposits were discovered during excavation of Trenches 1-3, and the intact midden deposit discovered in Trench 4 will not be impacted by catch basin construction. It is recommended that construction of Catch Basins 1-4 be allowed to proceed without additional archeological investigations. However, the Bluff portion of Southern University is eligible for nomination to the National Register as an Historic District under Criteria A and B. Contributing elements to the District are the Archives Building, the Home Economics Building (McNair Hall/NROTC), the Mechanical Arts Building (AROTC), the Machine Shop (ROTC Supply), the Laundry/Riverside Hall, the Martin L. Harvey Auditorium, and Joseph S. Clark's sarcophagus. Planned construction of the catch basins will have a beneficial effect on the property; the catch basins will have no visual effect on the integrity of the setting and they will prevent further erosion of the bluffline.			
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August 17, 1999

REPLY TO
ATTENTION OF:


Programs, Planning and Project Management Division
Environmental Planning and Compliance Branch

To The Reader,

This cultural resources effort was designed, funded, and guided by this office as part of our cultural resources management program. Documented in this report are an archeological survey and a National Register evaluation of the Scott's Bluff portion of the Southern University campus. The archeological survey documents that the proposed work will have no effect on significant archeological deposits related to Southern University or earlier occupations. The National Register evaluation concludes that an eligible historic district exists on Scott's Bluff.

We agree with the authors' recommendation that the Southern University National Register district should include the Joseph S. Clark sarcophagus. However, the Louisiana State Historic Preservation Officer in consultation with the staff of the Keeper of the Register, reviewed this issue and decided to exclude the gravesite area from the district.

We compliment the contractor on a job well done. The scholarship was exemplary and the report is thorough and well written.


Michael E. Stout
Technical Representative



Howard R. Bush
Acting Chief, Environmental
Planning and Compliance Branch

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CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

Introduction

Earth Search, Inc., performed historical research and archeological survey at Southern University (16EBR159) in Baton Rouge, Louisiana, in support of the New Orleans District, U.S. Army Corps of Engineers plans to stabilize the eroding Scott's Bluff, located at the western periphery of the university campus. Research focused on the historic portion of the university (ca. 1914) and was conducted in order to determine the National Register eligibility of this area. Available records and literature were examined in order to establish an historic context for Southern University and to investigate the evolution of the landscape. Architectural elements within the project area were evaluated. Archeological field investigations were restricted to the excavation of four backhoe trenches at predetermined locations along the bluffline and were conducted between January 12-15, 1999. No significant deposits were discovered during excavations. However, based on the results of historical research, the historic portion of the Southern University campus is eligible for the National Register of Historic Places as an historic district.

Project Area Description

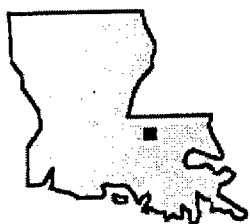
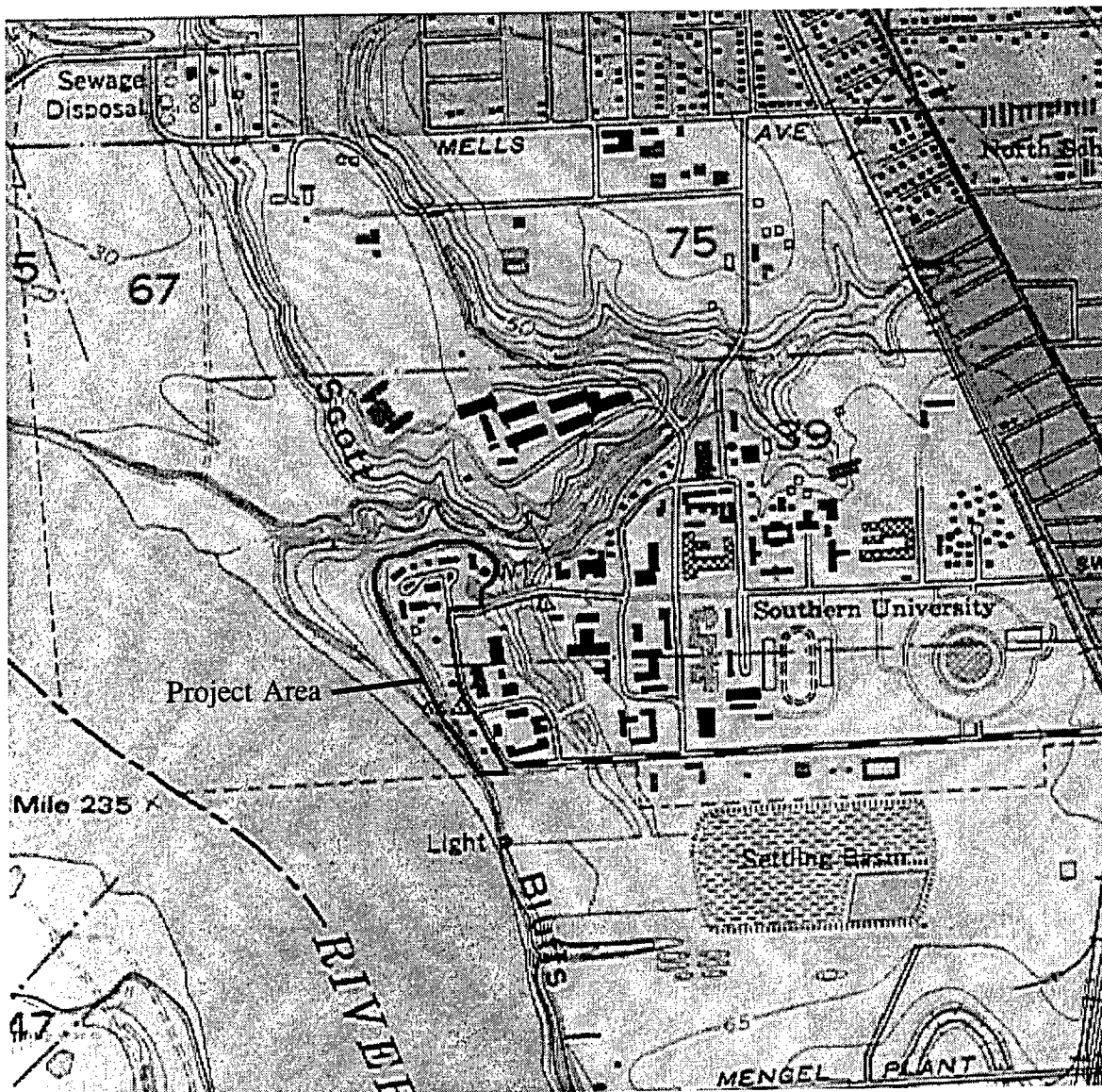
The project area corresponds to the historic portion of the Southern University campus situated along Scott's Bluff. It is located in the SW 1/4 of irregular Section 39 and the NW 1/4 of irregular Section 50, Township 6 South, Range 1 West. Site elevation is generally 66 ft above mean sea level (20 m amsl) and relatively flat with a slope factor of only 1-3 percent. The project area includes buildings dating to the 1920s, the gravesites of two former university presidents and one president's wife, and a sculpture commemorating the location of the "red stick" for which Baton Rouge was named, as well as the Southern University Archives Building, which is currently listed on the National Register. The project area is bound on the west by the Mississippi River, on the north by an unnamed stream, on the east by Netterville Drive (College Drive), and on the south by the Kaiser Aluminum property line (Figure 1).

Project Action

The New Orleans District, U. S. Army Corps of Engineers has developed a two-phase solution for the erosion problem along Scott's Bluff. Phase I will consist of the construction of a small ridge along the bluff edge to prevent water flow from further eroding the escarpment. Soil for the construction of this ridge will be brought to the site from elsewhere and will not involve excavations within the project area. Four catch basins will be installed to drain the water trapped by the ridge and deposit it at the base of the bluff. The catch basins will disturb the upper 2 ft (0.60 m) of the bluff deposits. Phase II will consist of erosion protection along the bluff slope (Appendix I, Scope of Services). Construction of the catch basins may impact cultural deposits, if present, along the bluffline. Therefore, the location of each basin was investigated archeologically to determine if intact cultural deposits exist along the bluff and if the placement will impact these deposits.

Report Organization

Chapter 2 provides an environmental overview of the project area. Chapter 3 presents the prehistory of the study area, while Chapters 4 and 5 discuss the history of the Baton Rouge and the study area, respectively. Previous archeological investigations are presented in Chapter 6. Chapter 7 provides a discussion of field methodology and the results of the archeological field investigations, and Chapter 8 presents the evaluation of standing structures in the project area. Conclusions and recommendations are found in Chapter 9.



Project Area
Boundary



0 1000 ft



Figure 1. Excerpt from the USGS Scotlandville, LA (1963, revised 1994) 7.5' quadrangle showing the project area.

CHAPTER 2 NATURAL SETTING

Introduction

This chapter describes different elements of the natural landscape surrounding the project area. These discussions begin with the geological and geomorphic development of the project area and subsequent modifications to the landscape. Descriptions of the soils likely to be encountered during archeological field investigations follow landscape development. Forest types and the fauna and flora inhabiting them are presented, as well as a short discussion of the climate in and around the project area. These data should familiarize the reader with the general characteristics of the past and present natural environment.

Geology and Geomorphology

The project area and surrounding region lie entirely within the West Gulf Coastal Plain physiographic province. Generally, this area is a belted plain formed on relatively recent deposits, Cretaceous Age and younger. These deposits are progressively younger north to south and are either unconsolidated or poorly consolidated. Dipping gently seaward, these successive belted deposits have been relatively stable for several millennia, but have been modified by stream courses creating floodplains. More resistant deposits form inland facing cuestas or scarps (Fenneman 1938; Fisk 1944; Saucier 1974, 1994; Mossa and Autin 1989).

More specifically, the region is composed of Pre-Wisconsin Quaternary deposits which probably date to either the early or middle Pleistocene. Beginning at the juncture of the Lower Mississippi River Valley and uplands near Baton Rouge, these deposits extend north and east into Mississippi and south to Lakes Maurepas and Pontchartrain. Fluvial and marine terraces and related formations comprise most, if not all, of these Quaternary deposits (Autin 1984; Autin et al. 1991; Mossa and Autin 1986, 1989; Saucier 1974, 1994:8-9, Figures 1,3,4).

Three major geomorphic complexes have been delineated within the regional setting of the project area. They include the Upland, intermediate, and Prairie complexes. For the purposes of this research, a complex will be defined as a surface or set of temporally related surfaces within an associated sedimentary sequence which may represent more than one depositional environment (Autin et al. 1991:555). The project area is situated within the Prairie complex at the junction of the Mississippi River floodplain and bluffs immediately east and adjacent to the floodplain (Snead and McCulloh 1984).

The Prairie Complex extends south from its interface with portions of both Upland and Intermediate Complexes in northern East Baton Rouge Parish to the Mississippi River Deltaic Plain near Port Vincent and French Settlement, Louisiana. Usually mapped as Undifferentiated Coastal Plain deposits, the Prairie Complex consists of two alluvial sequences of different ages that form a single terrace. In the Baton Rouge area, the complex begins with a loess deposit 1 to 12 ft (0.3 to 3.65 m) thick. Below the loess, a natural levee deposit has been mapped and is underlain by what has been interpreted as five channel fill sequences. Each channel fill deposit is 10 to 15 ft (3.04-4.57 m) thick and consists of silty clays which grade into sandy loams (Autin et al. 1988). Alternatively, another interpretation suggests that the sequence below the natural levee deposit is actually crevasse splays associated with the natural levee(s) rather than a stacked sequence of channel fills. Moreover, numerous borings clearly indicate that the sequence below the natural levee represents material deposited in a rim swamp environment (Saucier 1994:176).

During the last Pleistocene glacial episode, the Mississippi River increased its stream gradient and began to entrench itself into the Prairie complex. Concurrently, a gradual uplifting and tilting of the complex gulfward was initiated. The net result of these two processes was the

creation of a much deeper stream channel and dissection of the complex surface began. Stream course incision and dissection of the Prairie complex surface slowed after sea level began to rise after the end of the Pleistocene. At this time, the Mississippi River increased in size and is believed to have entered a meandering phase of development ca. 12,000 B.P. Subsequently, the combination of erosion and annual flooding by the Mississippi River allowed the river to meander in an ever-increasing area, thereby creating an alluvial valley.

The contemporary Prairie Complex is drained by small streams most of which flow into the Amite River located along the eastern edge of Baton Rouge Parish. Continued erosion of the Prairie Complex has created several sloughs within the vicinity of the project area. There is a very low potential for flooding by the Mississippi River or other smaller streams given the height of the complex, but the erosional activities of the smaller stream has created a northeast to southwest ground surface slope in the Baton Rouge area. Many of the sloughs noted above have been converted to artificial lakes, filled in, or incorporated into the city drainage system (Castille et al. 1979:5; Perrault 1993:4-6).

Soils

Two general soil associations have been delineated in the project area. The Olivier-Loring-Terrace escarpments association is located along the western boundary of the project area in a narrow north/south oriented band. This association is characteristically level to gently sloping, somewhat poorly drained to moderately well drained loamy soils found on steep escarpments. Immediately east and adjacent to this association is the Olivier-Calhoun-Loring association. Soils comprising the latter association are predominantly level, poorly to moderately well drained loamy soils found on broad flats and in depressions (Dance et al. 1968).

Terrace escarpment soils are usually located between terraces and floodplains in the western and southern parts of the parish. They are narrow and steep and highly dissected by ravines and drainages. Soil material ranges from sandy loam to silty clay, but most are either silt or silt loam. The composition and depth of these soils are variable. In some exposures, the silt or silt loam extends to a depth of 4 ft (1.2 m) or more below ground surface, while in other areas, silt loam deposits extends to a depth generally 3 ft (0.9 m) below ground surface and is underlain by brown or yellow silty clay loam. Erosion is a major hazard in bare or denuded areas. Most escarpment areas are forested with a mixture of hardwoods and pine (Dance et al. 1968:34, Plate 24).

Loring silt loam, 0 to 1 percent slopes, occur mainly in the eastern part of the parish and along the northern and northeastern borders. The surface layer of this soil is brown, friable silt loam approximately 9 in (22.8 cm) thick. The subsoil is either a dark brown or yellowish red, friable silt clay loam located between 9-24 in (22.8-60.9 cm) below ground surface. Beneath the subsoil is a firm, brittle fragipan composed of either brown silt loam or silty clay loam which is interbedded with gray silt loam. The maximum subsurface extent of the fragipan is 60 in (152.5 cm) below ground surface. Loring silt loam is low in nitrogen, phosphorus, and potassium. It is slightly to very strongly acidic which is effectively neutralized by adding lime. Approximately 30 percent of Loring silt loam soils are forested with mixed hardwoods and pines, while 25 percent has been developed for urban use. The remaining acreage is utilized primarily for cultivated crops and pasturage (Dance et al. 1968:25, Plate 24).

Biota

The natural landscape surrounding the project area is forested with a mixture of hardwood and pine species. Hardwoods located in elevated areas include different oak species, elms, ashes, locusts, hickories, gums, and magnolias. Magnolia, oak, and sweetgum are located in low lying or bottomlands. The understory associated with the mixed forest is very dense and comprised of

numerous shrubs and vine species. Industrial, institutional, and residential development has severely altered the landscape in the area immediately surrounding the project area. Most of the forest east and south of the project area was cleared during the eighteenth and early-nineteenth centuries and replaced by agricultural fields (Brown 1945; Wurtzburg and Hahn 1992; Perrault 1993).

The mixed hardwood and pine forest offers prime habitats for numerous fur-bearing mammals including deer, raccoon, opossum, rabbit, and prehistorically bison (Lowery 1974). Similarly, numerous avian species inhabit these forested areas and include flycatchers, swallows, wrens, thrashers, vireos, sparrows, and warblers (Peterson 1990). Domesticated livestock are located east of the project area in beef cattle, dairy, and horse farms (Dance et al. 1968). Seasonal migrant waterfowl include ducks, geese, teal, swans, cranes, and loons (Sprunt and Zim 1961). Several species of warblers, flycatchers, thrushes, buntings, finches, and parrots have recently migrated from their home territories in Latin America and Asia to the United States and are intermingling with resident populations (Peterson 1990:348-358).

Amphibians and reptiles may be found, but are not exclusive to, the mixed pine/hardwoods forests. A more diversified vegetative cover has developed due to the increased amounts of water and nutrients. Vegetative diversity has allowed an expanded faunal community to develop and inhabit this forest. Amphibians and reptiles identified in this eco-niche include treefrogs, turtles, anoles, skinks, and snakes.

Climate

East Baton Rouge Parish has a humid, subtropical climate characterized by relatively high rainfall. More than 4 in (10.1 cm) of rain falls in every month except September and October. Summers are generally hot and humid, while winters are usually mild. The maximum high temperature is usually about 90° F. and occurs in either July or August. Temperatures over 100° F. are rare. Only about 16 days of each year have a temperature of 32° F. or lower. Moist, tropical air from the south and dry, polar air from the north alternate in winter. Extremely cold weather seldom lasts for more than 3 or 4 days (Dance et al. 1968:77).

The average annual rainfall is 54.6 in (138.6 cm) and usually occurs in the form of showers. Prolonged rains are infrequent and normally occur in winter. The relative humidity at Baton Rouge averages 73 percent. It is highest at night and lowest during the afternoon hours. Average windspeed is less than 10 mi per hour (16 km). Strong winds are not common. Locally damaging winds are associated with cold fronts in winter, thunderstorms in summer, and dissipating tropical depressions in fall (Dance et al. 1968:78).

CHAPTER 3 PREHISTORIC CULTURAL SETTING

Introduction

This chapter presents an overview of prehistoric Native American culture history in southeastern Louisiana. Prehistoric occupations in the area are divided into eight periods: Paleo-Indian, Archaic, Poverty Point, Tchula, Marksville, Baytown, Coles Creek, and Mississippian (Smith et al. 1983). These periods cover a temporal span beginning c. 25,000 B.C. and ending at European contact. The periods defined by Smith et al. (1983) should not be confused with other evolutionary sequences developed for the southeastern United States (Ford 1936; Neuman 1984; Phillips 1970). Phases or temporal subdivisions of these periods are discussed and diagnostic traits presented.

The Paleo-Indian Period

The emergence or migration of Paleo-Indian populations into North America has been estimated between 25,000 and 12,000 B.C. (Bense 1994). However, there is no evidence placing these groups in Louisiana prior to 10,000 B.C. (Neuman 1984:58). There are very few Paleo-Indian sites recorded in southeastern Louisiana. In the Florida parishes, a late Paleo-Indian occupation has been identified at the Jones Creek locality (Gagliano 1963; CEI 1982:15) as well as at the Palmer site (16EBR13) (Gagliano 1963). Based on a very limited sample, the Jones Creek phase was created. The phase appears to actually represent a transition from the Paleo-Indian period to the early Archaic (Gagliano 1963; CEI 1982; Rogers 1989:42). Diagnostic projectile points include San Patrice and Planview-like examples.

The earliest known projectile points from Louisiana are the Angostura, Clovis, Dalton, Folsom, Kirk, Meserve, Pelican, Plainview, Quad, San Patrice, and Scottsbluff types. These points are characterized by the presence of single or multiple flutes running lengthwise from the base to the tip of the point, and have an estimated age of 10,000 B.C. to 8,500 B.C. Of the point types, Clovis, Dalton, Kirk, San Patrice, and Scottsbluff are most commonly encountered in Louisiana. Other point types, such as Meserve and Pelican, do not seem to be a primary diagnostic type for specific complexes, but appear to be minority elements in assemblages with other primary diagnostic Paleo-Indian point types. San Patrice and Dalton points appear at approximately 8,500 B.C. (Bense 1994; Gagliano and Gregory 1965; Jeter et al. 1989; Lee et al. 1993:9; Neuman 1984; Springer 1973).

Paleo-Indian lifeways are traditionally considered to have been strongly oriented towards the pursuit of large game, particularly of now-extinct Pleistocene megafauna. However, in recent years this viewpoint has been modified by the discovery of evidence of more balanced subsistence practices. Materials obtained from the Lubbock Lake site in Texas indicate that deer and a broad spectrum of small mammals including duck, muskrat, rabbit, turkey, and turtle are also likely to have been exploited (Johnson 1974, 1977). In addition, the Paleo-Indian component at the Whately site (16LA37) in LaSalle Parish, included a groundstone mano, a plant processing implement (Thomas and Campbell 1978). Climatic changes and possibly overhunting may have caused the extinction of the large megafauna at the end of the Pleistocene. These changes resulted in a switch to a more diverse cultural adaptation by the end of the Paleo-Indian period (Kuehn 1998). The appearance of the San Patrice and Dalton point types are believed to reflect this shift in adaptation (Gibson 1981).

Given the scarcity of Paleo-Indian sites in Louisiana, little is known about the social make-up of these groups. It is presently acknowledged that Paleo-Indian populations consisted of small bands of hunters and gatherers adapted to river-edge environments. As the megafauna became extinct, these bands began to hunt smaller mammals (Kuehn 1998).

The Archaic Period

Few sites dating to the Archaic period (8000 B.C. - 1500 B.C.) have been reported in southeastern Louisiana. Because land formation was occurring during this time, sites are probably either deeply buried or destroyed by subsequent riverine processes. From 5000 B.C. to 2000 B.C., the altithermal period occurred, causing drastic climatic changes. Changes in floral and faunal communities occurred as sea level rose and environmental conditions became warmer and drier. With these ecological changes, the early inhabitants of Louisiana adapted to a subsistence strategy based on a wide variety of woodland and riverine environments. This shift in environmental adaptation has been referred to as "primary forest efficiency" (Neuman 1984:74-76; Shannon 1989:16).

The Archaic period is best characterized as a shift from the hunting of megafauna to the exploitation of more specialized local resources. A shifting residence pattern produced by small bands occupying temporary camps during the early Archaic gave way to seasonally occupied sites in the middle Archaic. Concurrently, an overall increase in population is reflected in the regional variability both in the types of settlement systems utilized and in the numbers and types of projectile points/knives found in archeological assemblages. Deeply stratified sites, seasonal reoccupation of locations, and artifacts indicating intensified floral exploitation suggests increasing reliance upon regional and local resources. The presence of large quantities of non-utilitarian objects during the late Archaic indicates that ritualized activities may have had an increased role during this period. Large scale trade of exotic goods is evident across the Gulf Coastal plain. There is strong evidence that during this time previously uninhabited areas were populated while sites became larger and more complex. The importance of horticulture increased during the late Archaic, with possibly full domestication of some indigenous species by the end of the period (Bense 1994; Crites 1991; Fritz and Kidder 1993; Fuller and Kelley 1993; Hudson 1976; Keller and Campbell 1983; Neuman 1984; Rafferty 1994; Sassaman 1993; Smith 1986).

In the eastern woodlands, the early Archaic period spans the interface between the Pleistocene and later post-glacial climates. The development of side-notched, corner-notched, and stemmed projectile points are characteristic of this period. The early Archaic period in the study area is typified by the small artifact assemblages which comprise the St. Helena phase. This phase was first recognized in the Florida parishes. Two diagnostic projectile points, Kirk and Palmer, are believed to be indicative of this phase (Weinstein et al. 1977:4).

The Monte Sano phase is the archeological expression of the middle Archaic in the study area. The phase was named after the Monte Sano site (16EBR17), which is located approximately 1.25 mi south of the project area. Salvage excavations were conducted at the two mounds which comprise the site indicate that the low, round mounds covered primary platforms which may have served as cremation areas. Artifacts associated with the larger mound include late Archaic projectile points, microlithic tools, and a red jasper locust effigy bead. Radiocarbon dating suggests the mounds date to the middle Archaic period despite the presence of artifacts which indicate a late Archaic occupation (Perrault 1993:12).

The Pearl River phase of the late Archaic was first conceived by Sherwood Gagliano (1963). Occupations associated with this phase are primarily shell and earth midden sites. Raw material includes both locally available stone and shell and exotic lithic material from Arkansas. Pontchartrain and Kent points are the most common projectile point types recovered from Pearl River phase sites. The groundstone assemblage is comprised of hones, saws, abraders, boatstone, atlatl weights, pitted stone, and hammerstones. The chipped stone portion of the assemblage may include drills, saws, petaloid flakes, and microliths similar those recovered from the later Poverty Point culture. Socketed antler points, bone awls, and baked clay objects were also recovered from sites dating to this phase (Gagliano 1963:126-127). Several late Archaic components found along

the Amite River terrace margin contained tool inventories which are similar to those of the Pearl River phase (Servello and Morehead 1984).

Poverty Point

The Poverty Point culture (1500-500 B.C.) has been interpreted as a cultural expression bridging the gap between the late Archaic and early Woodland periods. Poverty Point (16WC5), located in West Carroll Parish, Louisiana contains a series of concentric rings forming a half-circle, one large mound believed to represent a bird, a raised, rectangular platform interpreted as a ball court, and several mounds located north and south of the site proper. Poverty Point-related sites occur throughout Louisiana, eastern Arkansas, western Mississippi, southeast Missouri, southern Illinois, western Kentucky, Georgia, and the panhandle region of Florida. Sites are generally located on levees, terrace edges, stream-lake junctions, and coastal environments (Byrd 1991; Neuman 1984:90-91; Webb 1970:33-35).

The Poverty Point period represents the florescence of long-distance trade already evident in the late Archaic, including importation of exotic cherts and other lapidary materials from the central United States and the Great Lakes area (Neuman 1984:101-102). Caching of galena has been taken as evidence that the Poverty Point site was a regional distribution node in a large trade interaction sphere (Walthall et al. 1982). Diagnostic artifacts of Poverty Point culture include tiny microlithic perforators, fired clay objects, tubular pipes, clay figurines, rough hoes and celts, and jasper beads. It has been proposed that the Poverty Point objects, fired clay balls, were used for cooking. Pottery sherds recovered include fiber-tempered and sand- or clay-tempered wares. Bowls were also made of steatite and sandstone (Webb 1982:12-13). Motley points, often made from non-local cherts, are the index point type for Poverty Point sites (Neuman 1984:99). Epps and Gary points are also present (Heartfield, Price and Greene, Inc. 1985:8). The presence of atlatl weights and an antler atlatl hook in the Poverty Point site assemblage indicates spear throwers were utilized. Pitted stones and grinding basins are more than likely associated with the processing of nuts and seeds for food.

Poverty Point settlement includes large regional mound centers, such as the Poverty Point and Claiborne (22HA501) sites, to small hamlets and temporary camps. Many of the larger sites are oval or horse-shoe shaped. The large earthworks at Poverty Point, although not the first of their kind, were probably the largest earth features in North America at the time of their construction (Neuman 1984). This characteristic, along with the presence of non-local lithic resources apparently traded from great distances, led Gibson (1974) to propose that the larger regional centers were occupied by a ruling elite, and that Poverty Point may have represented the first chiefdom-level society in North America. However, the chiefdom model for Poverty Point has not yet garnered universal acceptance (Johnson 1980:251-281; Gibson 1970:319-348; 1990:201-237; Steponaitis 1986:377-378). In Catahoula Parish, sites attributed to the Poverty Point period, such as Caney Mounds (16CT5), Wild Hog Mound (16CT27), Old Saline Camp (no state site number), and Shoe Bayou (16CT342), are camps, which suggest that social organization here did not exceed the band level (Hunter 1970).

The Linsley (16OR40) and Bayou Jasmine (16SJB2) sites' artifact assemblages form the basis of the Bayou Jasmine phase, while artifacts from the Garcia (16OR34) site define the succeeding Garcia phase (Gagliano and Saucier 1963; Duhe 1977). The Linsley site is situated on a buried natural levee associated with an early course of the Mississippi River. A series of radiocarbon dates, baked clay balls, and a characteristic Poverty Point artifact assemblage clearly date the site to the Poverty Point period (Gagliano and Saucier 1963:Table 1; Weinstein et al. 1978:A/23-A/25).

Evidence for a Poverty Point period occupation at the Bayou Jasmine site consists principally of baked clay Poverty Point objects quite similar in size and shape to those from the Poverty

Point site (Gagliano and Saucier 1963:321). Duhe (1977:35-37) also reports the presence of small numbers of Poverty Point microtools and a relatively minor quantity of non-local lithic material, including unworked quartz crystals, orthoquartzite projectile points, worked hematite, steatite (which was rare) and an unidentified gray-brown chert. The Bayou Jasmine site also supported an extensive Tchefuncte component, along with later Marksville, Coles Creek, and Plaquemine occupations (Duhe 1977; Gagliano and Saucier 1963).

The Garcia site was found at the eastern tip of Orleans Parish and consisted of an eroding *Rangia* beach deposit. The evidence for a Poverty Point component here is relatively scarce, consisting principally of microlithic tools and a variety of chipped and polished stonework (Gagliano and Saucier 1963:326, Table 1).

The Tchula Period

Tchula period occupations (500 B.C.-A.D. 1) in the Lower Mississippi Valley are equated with the Tchefuncte culture. The period has also been identified as the Formative (Jenkins and Krause 1986), or Early Ceramic period because, with the exception of fiber-tempered pottery, it was the interval during which initial pottery complexes appeared in the Lower Mississippi Valley (Neuman 1984:113, 122). Sites are few and scattered, with most occupations found in the coastal zone (Neuman 1984). These data are interpreted to suggest that the peoples of the Tchefuncte culture were largely seminomadic hunters and gatherers (Neuman 1984:135). Within subareas such as South Louisiana, regional artifact markers, primarily Tchefuncte type ceramics, are useful for recognizing Tchula period occupations (Phillips 1970:7, 8, 15, 76) and possibly for defining regional populations (Shenkel 1981; Weinstein 1986).

Peoples of the Tchefuncte culture were the first to engage extensively in the manufacture of ceramics. Fiber-tempered and some grog-tempered or temperless sherds have been recovered from earlier Poverty Point contexts (Webb 1982). These may represent primarily trade goods from the earliest pottery-making cultures in the east. The basic Tchefuncte ware is temperless or grog-tempered, with accidental inclusions of small quantities of sand and vegetable fiber. Sand-tempered wares represent a minority constituent of Tchefuncte site assemblages (Shenkel 1984:47-48). Ceramic decorations and various percentages of these decorations have been used to create several regional phases of the Tchefuncte culture in the study area (Weinstein 1986). The Pontchartrain phase is considered the earliest Tchefuncte manifestation in the region, and is thought to date from ca. 500 B.C. to ca. 250 B.C. Pontchartrain phase sites are moderately common in the Pontchartrain Basin. The most notable of these sites are the Tchefuncte site (16ST1) in St. Tammany Parish, and the Big Oak (16OR6) and Little Oak Island (16OR7) sites in Orleans Parish (Ford and Quimby 1945; Neuman 1984; Shenkel 1974, 1981, 1984; Shenkel and Gibson 1974). A later Beau Mire phase has been proposed to encompass the period from ca. 250 B.C. to A.D. 1, although this phase is not accepted by all archeologists (Shenkel 1981, 1984; Weinstein 1986; Weinstein and Rivet 1978).

Excavations in the Tchefuncte component at the Morton Shell Mound site (16IB3) revealed a more broadly adapted faunal diet and also recovered a large and well preserved floral sample (Byrd 1974). Floral remains include seeds of squash (*Cucurbita pepo*) and bottle gourd (*Lagenaria siceraria*), along with hickory nuts, acorns, plum, grape, and persimmon. Although the presence of squash and bottle gourd were initially cited as an example of early Woodland horticulture (Byrd 1976; Byrd and Neuman 1978), recent evidence suggests that such an assumption may not be warranted (Fritz and Kidder 1993; see also Neuman 1984:119).

Social complexity was relatively minimal in the Tchefuncte culture. Settlements are generally small and lack certain evidence of earth works or other complex features. Burials are common, but rarely, if ever, contained grave furnishings. The evidence for earthen structures, such as mounds, is debatable. Low, domed mounds have been associated with Tchefuncte culture

sites, but the data for securely attributing these constructions to the Tchefuncte people are limited (Neuman 1984:117, 135; Toth 1988:27). The best candidates for Tchefuncte mounds are found in the Lafayette, Louisiana, area, and are centered on the Lafayette Mounds (16SM17) (Gibson and Shenkel 1988; Weinstein 1986). This mound group, along with at least three others in the immediate area, are suggested to represent mortuary centers which served an otherwise dispersed population (Gibson and Shenkel 1988; Weinstein 1986:117). Unlike earlier Poverty Point culture, Tchefuncte people did not import non-local or exotic lithics to their sites, nor did they engage in lapidary art to the best of our knowledge.

The Marksville Period

The Marksville period (A.D. 1-400) is generally subdivided into two sequential temporal units, early and late Marksville. The early Marksville period is associated with the Hopewellian Tradition manifested throughout the Eastern United States (Phillips 1970:7, 17-18, 886; Toth 1988). The Hopewell Tradition has two major centers of development in Ohio and Illinois and dates to between 200 B.C. and A.D. 400. Diffusion of Hopewellian cultural traits may have resulted from the activity of traders who established a wide-ranging network, sometimes termed the "Hopewellian Interaction Sphere" (Caldwell 1964). In addition to diagnostic pottery types of the Marksville period, conical burial mounds were characteristic of the culture (Toth 1988). Interments are generally associated with grave goods. Some of these artifacts were manufactured from exotic raw materials (Neuman 1984:142-168; Toth 1974, 1988).

The late Marksville period appears to witness an increase in cultural diversity in the Lower Mississippi Valley and also perhaps on the coast. In much of the Lower Mississippi Valley, the Issaquena culture developed over several centuries beginning around A.D. 200 (Greengo 1964; Phillips 1970; Williams and Brain 1983). Along the peripheries of the Lower Mississippi Valley, at least in its northern end, other cultural variants developed which were clearly contemporaneous with Issaquena. However, these variants did not share the same cultural content (Belmont 1984; Jeter et al. 1989; Ring 1986). In the Louisiana coastal zone, the cultural situation is very vague and poorly understood. Marksville period occupations are relatively rare and are best known from several large, evidently mounded sites. The precise chronology of these occupations is not well defined, but there may be local analogs to the Marksville and Issaquena cultures.

Two Marksville period phases have been defined for use in the study area. The Smithfield phase is named for the site (16WBR2-3) of the same name and is the earlier of the two phases (Toth 1988). Components dating to this phase have been identified at the Monks (16PC5) and Medora (16WBR1) sites (Toth 1988:206-209; Perrault 1993:14). The Gunboat Landing phase was defined by Weinstein et al. (1977) from excavations at several sites located on the lower Amite River (Weinstein 1974).

The Baytown Period

The Baytown period (A.D. 400-700) has been defined as the interval between the end of Hopewellian inspired Marksville culture and its later Issaquena and related descendants, and the emergence of Coles Creek culture. The Baytown period is often referred to as the "Troyville period" by Delta archeologists. Because of the perceived lack of diagnostic markers for the period in southeastern Louisiana, it is often assimilated with the subsequent Coles Creek period, and the two are together referred to and discussed as "Troyville-Coles Creek cultures" (e.g., Neuman 1984). Gagliano et al. (1979:4-20) observed that the "Baytown period probably needs more work than any other period in coastal Louisiana."

Historically, the interval between roughly A.D. 400 to 700 has been one of the most difficult to understand from a culture historical perspective. When it was first recognized in the coastal zone by McIntire (1954, 1958a), this period was designated Troyville, a name taken from

the culture sequence developed by Ford (1951) at the Greenhouse site (16AV2) (Gibson 1984; Jeter et al. 1989:152). As noted by Gibson (1984:32-35), Troyville at this time was a pottery complex as well as a temporal and cultural unit. Researchers in the coastal zone adopted the designation as a temporal unit (McIntire 1958a:5, following Ford 1951). As more sites were encountered and as further research was undertaken, Troyville began to expand as a designation of both temporal and cultural significance (Gibson 1984:40-42). Still, to most researchers working in the coastal zone (and who had access only to surface collections), Troyville was largely, if not wholly, just a pottery complex. Most importantly, the typology of this pottery complex was ultimately derived from farther north (Ford 1935a, 1935b, 1939, 1951), and thus, Troyville ceramics in the coastal zone could not be differentiated from later Coles Creek pottery in a consistent manner. The Troyville "period" was thus inseparable from later Coles Creek, and the two were hybridized by the addition of a hyphen, thus resulting in a "Troyville-Coles Creek" period (Gibson 1984; Jeter et al. 1989:152; Neuman 1984).

When Phillips (1970:911-912) established the Whitehall phase to encompass the Baytown period in the Louisiana coastal zone, he specifically noted that the phase "would be more accurately described... as a collection of widely dispersed sites" (1970:911) rather than a coherent archeological manifestation. Indeed, his distribution maps have Whitehall phase sites from north of Baton Rouge to the Barataria Basin, and from the western Chenier Plain to eastern St. Bernard Parish (Phillips 1970:Figure 445). Subsequently, Whitehall became the broad temporal and culture historical unit into which all Baytown or Troyville material has been subsumed (see Wiseman et al. 1979:4.9-4.10). There has been no attempt to examine Whitehall from either a spatial or temporal perspective, although Phillips (1970:911-912) did note several possible Whitehall phase clusters (see also McIntire 1958a).

The problem, of course, is that there are few excavated contexts with which to define the Whitehall phase. Phillips' entire discussion of the phase was based on surface collections obtained by McIntire (1958a), and Saucier (1963). Work by Weinstein (1974) further fleshed out the content of the Whitehall phase on the north shore of Lake Pontchartrain. Weinstein recognized the Whitehall phase at the Whitehall site (16LV19) and elsewhere along the Amite River as containing a wide variety of typical Troyville markers. These included Larto Red, *var. Larto* as a principle diagnostic, along with one and two-line variants of Coles Creek Incised (*vars. Hunt, Stoner, and Wade*); Churupa Punctated, *var. Thornton*; Evansville Punctated, *vars. Amite, Braxton and Evansville*; French Fork Incised, *vars. Lafayette and Wilzone*; Hollyknowe Ridge Pinched, *var. Hollyknowe*; Mazique Incised, *var. Bruly* (identified as Alligator Incised, *var. Alligator*); and Mulberry Creek Cord Marked, *var. Edwards* (Weinstein 1974). These ceramic characteristics linked the Whitehall phase with occupations farther north and west, especially to occupations centered at the Kleinpeter site (16EBR5) near Baton Rouge, where an important Troyville component has been identified (Jones et al. 1993). South of Lake Pontchartrain, however, no sites supported the same diversity of ceramic types and varieties, and more to the point, there were no excavated components. Some of the Whitehall phase markers, such as Larto Red, Evansville Punctated, *var. Amite*, French Fork Incised, *var. Lafayette*, or Mazique Incised, *var. Bruly*, were identified in the Barataria Basin, but never in good associations with datable contexts. It is evident that the Whitehall phase is a misnomer when applied to sites south of Lake Pontchartrain and east or west along the coastal zone, as acknowledged by Phillips, and that its limits are stretched beyond the ability of the data to support such a construct.

The Coles Creek Period

The Coles Creek period (A.D. 700-1200) is the interval that begins with the emergence of Coles Creek culture in the southern part of the Lower Mississippi Valley and ends with the establishment of "full-blown" Mississippian culture in the northern part of the Valley (Phillips 1970:18). Although it appears to represent a population zenith in the eastern coastal zone, many sites tentatively classified as Coles Creek may actually be from the Baytown period (Wiseman et al. 1979:3/5).

Coles Creek culture in the central Lower Mississippi Valley is characterized by small ceremonial centers with mounds. These were surrounded by villages of varying size. The culture developed in the area between the mouth of the Red River and the southern part of the Yazoo Basin. A distinctive coastal variant of Coles Creek culture emerged at the same time, and no doubt there was a dynamic relation among and between Coles Creek period populations on the coast and in the interior (Brown 1984:95; Jeter et al. 1989).

Mounds associated with the Coles Creek culture generally are larger and exhibit more construction stages than those found at earlier Marksville period sites. A more significant difference is that Coles Creek mounds are pyramidal and flat-topped, and they were used as substructures for religious and/or civic buildings (Ford 1951; Williams and Brain 1983). In contrast, Marksville peoples generally built conical burial mounds (Neuman 1984:167).

The advent of the Coles Creek period in the Louisiana coastal zone is marked by changes in ceramic frequencies and, to a lesser extent, by the appearance of new types or varieties and the disappearance of others. More fundamental patterns of economic and social behavior also change, but at a seemingly slower rate. Unlike previous periods, Coles Creek is well known, at least in terms of the ceramics. In the Lower Mississippi Valley, Coles Creek has been divided into early, middle, and late phases (Phillips 1970; Williams and Brain 1983). More recently, however, a fourth, usually "transitional" Coles Creek (or in some cases early Plaquemine) phase has been added (Brown 1985a; Kidder 1994b; Weinstein 1987).

The archeological record of south Louisiana is sufficiently detailed so that the Coles Creek period is divided both into temporal phases and spatially discrete geographic areas. In the coastal zone, there are at least three geographic areas with two Coles Creek phases each. Only recently has a third, late Coles Creek, phase been proposed for these geographic areas (Brown 1984; Weinstein 1987). In the study area, Coles Creek is defined to include the Bayou Cutler, Bayou Ramos, and St. Gabriel phases (Weinstein 1987).

The Bayou Cutler phase was initially described by Kniffen (1936) as the Bayou Cutler complex, named for the site type in the Barataria Basin (Gagliano et al. 1979). Ford and Quimby (1945:18), and later McIntire (1958a:77) recognized Bayou Cutler "type" ceramics from the eastern coastal area and correlated them with Troyville-Coles Creek period ceramics from the Mississippi Valley. Phillips (1970:920-922) preferred to place Bayou Cutler as a phase "mostly if not entirely *within* the Coles Creek period" (1970:921, emphasis in original). Based on Kniffen's initial formulation, and using McIntire's data, Phillips defined Bayou Cutler as containing the types Pontchartrain Check Stamped, Coles Creek Incised, French Fork Incised, Mazique Incised, Chevalier Stamped, Beldeau Incised, Chase Incised, Rhinehart Punctated, and "Coles Creek rims" (1970:921). Phillips further "made a reasonably serious effort to subdivide the phase" (1970:922), but he found "the concept of Bayou Cutler is frail enough without overloading it with such refinements" (1970:922). Like Whitehall, then, Bayou Cutler stood as the only phase of the Coles Creek culture in coastal Louisiana, encompassing both great temporal depth and significant spatial dimension.

The Bayou Ramos phase was defined partially on the basis of excavations at the Bayou Ramos I site (16SMY133), which yielded radiocarbon dates of 970 ± 50 and 1215 ± 70 B.P. (Weinstein et al. 1978:91). The two dates were stratigraphically reversed, with the earlier date coming from a higher level. The Bayou Ramos I site excavations also yielded very small decorated pottery samples. Ceramics included Avoyelles Punctated, *var. Avoyelles*, Beldeau Incised, *var. Beldeau*, Coles Creek Incised, *var. Mott*, Mazique Incised, *var. Kings Point*, and Pontchartrain Check Stamped, *var. Pontchartrain*. This last variety was thought to decline in frequency during the late Coles Creek period (Weinstein et al. 1978:23, 99-100), a fact not substantiated by later research on the Louisiana coast (Brown 1982:31-37). "Certain varieties" of French Fork Incised were found at this time, but evidently in declining frequencies and with lesser elaboration (Weinstein

et al. 1978:23). Subsequent to the definition of the Bayou Ramos phase, excavations at the Morgan site (16VM9) in the Petit Anse region yielded a large number of dates for the later Coles Creek period in the central coastal area, and allowed for the formulation of a separate culture historical sequence in that region (Brown 1984, 1988; Fuller and Fuller 1987). The Morgan site data helped to pin down the ambiguous Bayou Ramos chronology, and, more critically, strengthened the definition of Bayou Ramos by restricting its spatial extent.

In the eastern section of the coastal zone, from the Atchafalaya eastward, Weinstein (1987) observed that the Transitional Coles Creek/Plaquemine occupations were best defined as an extension of the St. Gabriel phase, first defined by Brown (1985b) based on excavations at the type site (16IV128) (Woodiel 1980). Excavations in the prefound surface at St. Gabriel revealed a circular wall trench structure with ceramics and other material remains in good association. The pottery from this occupation surface included Addis Plain, Coles Creek Incised, *vars. Mott and Hardy*, Evansville Punctated, *var. Rhinehart*, Mazique Incised, *var. Manchac*, Plaquemine Brushed, *var. Plaquemine*, and Pontchartrain Check Stamped. Radiocarbon dates from this structure place the occupation between ca. A.D. 950-1250 (Kidder 1992:22-23; Woodiel 1980). Additional St. Gabriel occupations were noted at the nearby Bayou Goula (16IV11) and Medora (16WBR1) sites (Weinstein 1987:90), as well as at the Kleinpeter site near Baton Rouge (Jones et al. 1993).

The Mississippi Period

The beginning of the Mississippi period (A.D. 1200-1700) is marked by the appearance of emergent Mississippian culture in the northern part of the Lower Mississippi Valley and throughout much of the interior Southeast. Mississippian culture characteristics, such as shell tempering and the use of maize agriculture, did not penetrate into much of the central Lower Valley until after ca. A.D. 1200. Plaquemine culture is the term used to denote the indigenous late prehistoric populations of most of the Lower Mississippi Valley and adjacent coastal regions. Archeological evidence suggests that Plaquemine culture emerged from a Coles Creek base and was later influenced by Mississippian intrusions from farther up the Mississippi River Valley. Multi-mound construction and artifact assemblages are evidence that link the two. Absence of European trade goods indicates that the Plaquemine culture reached its zenith prior to European contact (Neuman 1984:258-259).

The late prehistoric culture history and chronology of the eastern portion of the Louisiana coastal zone is not well understood at present (Jeter et al. 1989:191). The data indicate that local Plaquemine populations in the region developed out of the Transitional Coles Creek/Plaquemine beginning at roughly A.D. 1200 (Jeter et al. 1989:191-195; Weinstein 1987). At roughly the same time, however, Mississippian ceramics (and possibly peoples) identified with the Pensacola variant of Mississippian culture (Knight 1984; Stowe 1985), enter into the area from the east, presumably via the Gulf Coast. Sites in the eastern coastal zone with shell tempered pottery in large quantities are identified with the Bayou Petre phase, while late prehistoric sites in the area without shell tempered pottery, and which show evidence of more Lower Valley ceramic characteristics, are identified with the so-called Delta-Natchezan phase. Although these Mississippian ceramics tend to be found primarily in the easternmost part of the region, Mississippian Bayou Petre phase pottery is not wholly confined to this region (McIntire 1958a). To further complicate the picture, there is increasing evidence that the late prehistoric populations in the Barataria Basin integrated some of the Mississippian designs and styles into the local ceramic repertoire (Davis and Giardino 1981).

It was Phillips who first established the phase chronology for the Louisiana Coastal zone. Based mostly on McIntire's data, he set up two sequential phases, Bayou Petre and Delta Natchezan, to encompass the Mississippi period on the coast. A third phase, Medora, was established for the Plaquemine occupation of the southern Lower Valley (Phillips 1970:949-953). Although some Medora phase sites have been identified in the coastal zone as far south as the Gibson site and as

far west as Avery Island (16IB23), Phillips largely restricted the distribution of this phase to the non-coastal part of the southern Mississippi River Valley. He further excluded Plaquemine culture from the eastern coastal zone by establishing the Bayou Petre phase (reconstituted from Kniffen's original Bayou Petre complex), which he argued was "not a phase of Plaquemine culture" (Phillips 1970:950). Bayou Petre was essentially defined to encompass all sites with shell tempered wares assumed to be of an eastern (Fort Walton, Pensacola, or Moundville) origin (McIntire 1958b; Phillips 1970).

Delta Natchezan was similarly defined to include those sites which manifest Natchez-like (i.e., Plaquemine) pottery (Phillips 1970:949). Phillips was not especially comfortable with the validity of either phase, noting that the Delta Natchezan phase was "very tentative, if not entirely hypothetical" (1970:949). Phillips had considerable difficulty distinguishing between Bayou Petre and Delta Natchezan sites, and concluded that there was a "zone of contact in which Delta Natchezan and Bayou Petre sites occur together" (1970:953). Bayou Petre sites were largely confined to the eastern portion of the delta, especially in the St. Bernard marshes east of the modern channel of the Mississippi River. The zone of contact noted by Phillips was roughly marked by the line of Bayou Barataria (1970:953). More recent analysis of the prehistory of the eastern coastal zone suggests that there is an important Plaquemine occupation in the Barataria Basin and westward. The situation east of the modern course of the Mississippi River is less well known, but Plaquemine, as it is traditionally known, may not have spread into the region. Weinstein (1987) places the Delta Natchezan phase at the end of the prehistoric sequence in the region, with Bayou Petre beginning earlier and continuing through to the historic period.

CHAPTER 4

HISTORIC OVERVIEW OF BATON ROUGE AND EAST BATON ROUGE PARISH

The Colonial Period to 1810

Baton Rouge received its name as the location of a red-painted pole at the boundary between the territories of the Bayagoula and the Houma tribes during the period of early French exploration of Louisiana. The subject was considered in detail by Albrecht (1945), who concluded convincingly that Scott's Bluff between Lake Kernan and the Mississippi River, thus on the Southern University campus, was probably the site of the pole (Albrecht 1945:67). The original French documentary sources permit only qualified determination of the location of the pole. André Pénicaut was a carpenter with the 1699 expedition of Pierre Le Moyne, *Sieur d'Iberville*, up the Mississippi River. It is worthwhile to quote from Penicaut's narrative of the voyage:

...From there [the confluence of Bayou Manchac and the Mississippi River] we went five leagues higher and found very high banks called *écorts* [*écors* or bluffs] in that region, and in savage called *Istrouma*, which means red stick, as at this place there is a post painted red that the savages have sunk there to mark the land line between the two nations, namely: land of the Bayagoulas [Bayogoula], which we were leaving, and land of another nation— thirty leagues upstream from the *bâton rouge*— named the Oumas [Houma]. These two nations were so jealous of the hunting in their territories that they would shoot at any of their neighbors whom they caught hunting beyond the limits marked by the red post. But nowadays things are not the same: they hunt everywhere, the ones with the others, and are good friends.

Five leagues upstream from this post, there are bluffs or banks of white dirt on the right side, very high, extending for three quarters of a league. At the end of them one finds a neck of land that juts far out into the Missicipy [*sic*], making a bend [now, False River] seven leagues around... [McWilliams 1953:25-26]

As discussed by Albrecht (1945), *Istrouma* was probably a garbled phonetic rendering by Pénicaut of "red stick" or *iti humma* in the Muskogean language of the Choctaw. Alternatively (and less likely), it could be from the Choctaw *isht hummachi* or "red dye" (Albrecht 1945:46-47). The general log of the Iberville expedition, kept by Ensign De Sauvole de la Villantry, also mentioned the red pole:

Three leagues from the place where we spent the night [near Bayou Manchac], we left behind our two canoes... together with some men to go hunting... Around three o'clock in the afternoon we put ashore... Two of the men that we had left behind to go hunting two leagues down the river, just came overland to our shelters [i.e., five leagues from Manchac]... we landed near a river, which is like a lake, where the savages informed us there were many fish; we found there several cabins covered with palmettos constructed by the Houmas, who came here to hunt and fish. They had even erected there a pole, 30 feet high, on which there were some fish [head] bones... [quoted in Albrecht 1945:33]

Iberville described the pole itself in greater detail:

On the 17th of March, 1699, we proceeded to a little river, on the right of the [Mississippi] river five leagues and a half from our camp, where they informed us was a great quantity of fish... The little river separates the hunting grounds of the Bayagoulas from those of the Oumas. On its bank are many cabins covered with

palmettos and a maypole without branches, reddened, with several heads of fish and bears attached as sacrifice... [quoted in Albrecht 1945:33-34]

Although the exact historic location of the "red stick" is not known, Scott's Bluff is topographically accurate for the Indian village, and since the river has altered its route little in this reach, the bluff is correctly located between Bayou Manchac downriver and Port Hudson and False River upriver. Lake Kernan and the outlet flowing from it to the Mississippi also correspond well to the small lake-like river described by the various Frenchmen. Albrecht (1945) hypothesizes that the small river or even the bluffs themselves were the actual intertribal boundary, since the concept of boundaries being marked by posts was foreign to the Indians of the region. He further suggests that the red pole was located at the site of the Tunica village located on Scott's Bluff into the Spanish period, which replaced the Houma settlement (Albrecht 1945:35-42), as discussed in more detail below. At any rate, perhaps the post was placed where it was well visible both ascending and descending the river, which in historic times could place it on Scott's Bluff somewhere within the project study area itself. However, the actual red stick site may never be definitively established.

Prior to 1718, the Baton Rouge area became part of a concession made by the Company of the West to the Dartaguiette (or Dartaguet) family, who also received a concession at Cannes Brulées further downriver (Giraud 1987:176). It may be noted that Le Page Du Pratz, who resided in Louisiana between 1718 and 1734, offers an explanation for the place-name "Baton Rouge" that is completely different from the "reddened maypole" observed by Pénicaut, Sauvole, and Iberville. Le Page Du Pratz states that the vicinity was named for a cypress tree of extraordinary size on the Dartaguiette concession; an early explorer said that the reddish wood of the massive trunk (some twelve yards in circumference) would make a fine walking-stick (Le Page du Pratz 1975:55, 239). Since the first publication of the Pénicaut narrative in 1887, this alternative story has been considered less likely as the origin of the name of Baton Rouge (Albrecht 1945:45), although an incident like this may well have occurred.

Settlement of the Dartaguiette concession at Baton Rouge, under the nominal leadership of Captain Bernard Diron Dartaguiette, was delayed by the lack of supplies but was evidently accomplished by spring 1721. Charles Le Gac, a director of the Company of the Indies, stated that soon the "Batons Rouges" had a large number of wild cattle, and noted that they had "good soil for tobacco, as well as for silks and other crops, as at the lower river" (quoted in Albrecht 1945:62). The 1722 census stated that

The concession of M. Dyron [sic] is located at Baton Rouge forty leagues above New Orleans. The land there is very fine and good and there are many prairies. Half of the concession is burned over. They have tried to increase the fields. Last year rice and vegetables were harvested. There are in this concession thirty whites and twenty negroes and two Indian slaves [quoted in Albrecht 1945:62]

The Dartaguiettes tried to change the place-name of the concession to Dirombourg, and had the settlement prospered, they may have succeeded. However, the concession was abandoned by 1727, after hunger and disease had decimated its population of *engagés* and slaves. Father Paul du Poisson visited the abandoned concession at Baton Rouge in June 1727 and stated that wild animals had eaten the crops and made it impossible for the concession to survive (Giraud 1987:176; Irion et al. 1993:12). Evidently no further concerted attempt was made by Europeans to settle in the Baton Rouge area during the French colonial period.

Following abandonment of the Dartaguiette concession, the Tunica Indians established a village in the Baton Rouge area. A tribe originating farther north, the Tunica settled among the Houma near Angola about 1706. However, the Tunica soon rose against the Houma, driving the Houma downriver and taking over the rich hunting ranges of their former hosts. The Tunica set up

villages of their own along the bluffs of the Mississippi River, evidently including a settlement at Scott's Bluff. The Tunica resided along the east bank of the Mississippi for several decades, well into the Spanish colonial period, despite pressure from other tribes. The Avoyel, Choctaw, Ofo, and Tunica attacked a British party ascending the Mississippi in 1764. The Tunica subsequently played a diplomatic game with the Spanish and British, for a time with some success. However, pressure on the Tunica from settlement in the region by the time of the American Revolutionary War probably led the Tunica to abandon the Baton Rouge village. A 1774 map of British land grants in the region of Manchac and Baton Rouge indicates an Indian village at the former, but not at the latter location. Most of the Tunica relocated to Avoyelles Parish by the mid-1780s (Jennings 1962:5; Swanton 1952:194; Kniffen et al. 1987:64, 77, 90; Albrecht 1945:44).

As a result of the terms of the Treaty of Fontainebleau (1762) all French territory west of the Mississippi, plus the Isle of Orleans, was ceded to Spain. With the conclusion of the Seven Years' War with the Treaty of Paris the following year, France ceded Louisiana east of the Mississippi to Britain, and Spain ceded Florida to Britain. Thus, the east bank of the Mississippi above Bayou Manchac became part of British West Florida. At this time, Baton Rouge was a hamlet with a handful of French or Creole residents. The British soon established a presence in their new territory, constructing a small palisade named Fort Bute at Manchac in 1765. The British sought to capitalize on the Manchac-Amite waterway for transportation of goods to the Gulf of Mexico, since it allowed Spanish New Orleans to be bypassed and reduced travel time to the Gulf by at least ten days. In 1764 and 1765, the British tried to improve the channel of Bayou Manchac by removing rafts and snags, but to limited effect. The Alabama and Houma Indians raided Manchac in 1765, looting the stores. Fort Bute was abandoned by the British about 1768, supposedly in favor of Fort New Richmond at Baton Rouge, although research by Powell Casey (1983) found no documentation that an actual fortification was constructed at Baton Rouge by the British until 1779. Troubles with Indians plagued the British in the area until 1770, but Manchac and Baton Rouge survived as centers of the smuggling trade. A warehouse was built by the British at Baton Rouge to store goods for the illicit commerce. Until the impact of the American Revolutionary War disrupted the trade, residents of the River parishes traded agricultural produce with the British for tools and other goods, while wheat and other British colonial products were imported into New Orleans (Casey 1983:16; Clark 1970:161-164).

While the smuggling trade remained important, the British encouraged settlement in West Florida by granting land tracts in the region. Large grants were made to noblemen and government officials, most of whom remained in Britain. Former military men received grants by "family right" of 150 acres per head of household, plus 50 acres for each family member or slave. Additional acreage (up to 1000 acres) could be purchased at the liberal terms of "purchase right," for 5 shillings per 50 acres. By 1770, the entire east bank of the Mississippi between Manchac and Baton Rouge had been granted to British subjects. During the 1770s, the residents of the Baton Rouge area grew corn, rice, pumpkins, and indigo (the most important commercial crop), exported lumber products, and traded in slaves (Goodwin et al. 1983:21).

During the War of American Independence, numerous Loyalist refugees from the rebellious American colonies drifted south and west to the Florida parishes. The pro-British planters at Manchac and Baton Rouge suffered the depredations of American Captain James Willing, whose foray down the Mississippi River in 1778 turned into a pillaging expedition. Willing and his men captured a vessel at Manchac, burned houses and other farm buildings, destroyed crops up and down the river, and stole slaves. Bernardo de Gálvez, the Spanish governor of Louisiana, wisely and humanely offered assistance to the afflicted planters. The British reinforced Fort Bute in 1778, and in May 1779, Spain sent notice to its colonies that it was at war with Britain. Despite a disruptive hurricane, Gálvez quickly marched troops against the British West Florida forts, seizing Fort Bute on September 7, before its garrison was prepared for action. At Baton Rouge, Gálvez positioned a battery on an Indian mound 1000 yards south of Fort New Richmond, and on September 21, the small British garrison at Baton Rouge surrendered to the Spanish after a three-

hour bombardment. Fort Panmure at Natchez then also quickly surrendered to Gálvez. With Gálvez's strategic *fait accompli*, most of British West Florida became Spanish West Florida as a result of the Treaty of Paris in 1783. West Florida remained under Spanish control until the United States unilaterally annexed the territory and symbolically took possession in December 1810 (Usner 1992:281-282; Goins and Caldwell 1995:29, 30, 35; Hinks et al. 1993:35).

The Baton Rouge area grew significantly after the American War for Independence. In 1782, the district had a mere 10 plantations and a total population of 169 persons. By 1786, there were 23 plantations in the Baton Rouge district and the population had almost doubled to 352 persons (Goodwin et al. 1983:21). The population approximately doubled again in the next two years; the 1788 census indicated 682 persons in the Baton Rouge district (Draughton 1998:5).

As noted above, the Tunica left the Baton Rouge area by about 1784; whether this was a result or cause of the influx of other settlers is not known. Spanish colonial documents provide some information about the land surrounding the Tunica village on Scott's Bluff. The location of the Tunica settlement had become vacant by 1785, when widow Margaret O'Brien was granted a concession of vacant land at "The Old Indian Village." Albrecht argues that the Tunica village at Scott's Bluff was likely at the location of the earlier Houma settlement, and is therefore the site of the *bâton rouge* (Albrecht 1945:44). Further discussion of the history of Scott's Bluff is presented in Chapter 5.

With Spain in control of West Florida and Louisiana, and with the Indian withdrawal from the area, Baton Rouge declined in strategic significance even as it grew in size. Governor Carondelet informed his superiors in 1794 that the fort at Baton Rouge had been allowed to fall into ruin (Robertson 1911:306).

In contrast to nearby Pointe Coupée, an area which concentrated on tobacco and indigo production, the Baton Rouge settlers instead relied on food crops and livestock raising. Lumber was the major commercial product of the district in the late 1780s. During the 1790s, indigo went into a decline throughout the colony for a variety of reasons, and cotton and sugarcane increased in importance. By the early years of the nineteenth century, the Baton Rouge area was noted for growing cotton and vegetables, but apparently still grew some indigo (Goodwin et al. 1983:21-23). Paul Alliot stated in 1804 that Baton Rouge consisted of about three score houses and a fort with a garrison of 60 men (Robertson 1911:117-119), while about the same time Perrin du Lac gave a disparaging description of the post:

... Some miles below the mouth of the Red River, on the opposite bank, is the small fort of Baton Rouge, occupied by a few Spanish soldiers under command of a sub-lieutenant. All the vessels that ascend or descend are obliged to stop there, in order to repeat the declaration that they have made or that which they will have to make at the American fort. The fort is of so little importance and the number of its inhabitants so inconsiderable that I shall not stop to speak of them. A few huts rather than houses are scattered here and there in its environs, and are inhabited by poor, dirty, and lazy Spaniards... [Robertson 1911:228].

Another traveler, Fortescue Cuming, described Baton Rouge a few years later, at the end of the Spanish colonial period:

... About half a dozen tolerably good frame (or wooden) houses scattered on an extensive plain surrounded on three sides by woods at a little distance, first made their appearance, while a dirty little town of 60 cabins crouded [*sic*] together in a narrow street on the river bank, penned in between the Mississippi and a low steep hill descending from the plain, filled the fourth side... [Cuming 1904:340].

West Florida remained under Spanish control when the United States purchased the Louisiana territory from France in December 1803. However, the West Florida population consisted of many Americans who had migrated into the area, and most of these wanted annexation by the United States. By the Treaty of San Lorenzo, American citizens had the right of deposit in New Orleans banks, but this had been rescinded in 1802, increasing dissatisfaction with the Spanish administration. During the summer of 1810, West Florida residents formulated a plan to establish representational government under titular Spanish control. The Spanish secretly summoned reinforcements from Pensacola to deal with what they correctly perceived as a challenge to their authority. When the call for reinforcements was discovered, about 75 armed men under the leadership of Philemon Thomas moved on Fort San Carlos in Baton Rouge. Near dawn on the morning of September 23, and under cover of fog, Thomas and his men approached the fort from the river side to find it unguarded except by a herd of cows. Surprising the Spanish garrison, Thomas' men captured the fort after a brief exchange of fire. On September 26, a convention of West Floridians declared independence from Spain and the creation of the Republic of West Florida. Petitions were sent to President Madison requesting U.S. annexation of West Florida. Madison ordered Louisiana territory governor William C.C. Claiborne to take possession of the district, which was achieved when U.S. troops occupied Baton Rouge on December 10. Spain did not officially recognize the *de facto* annexation until 1819 (Goins and Caldwell 1995:29, 35).

The Antebellum Period: 1810-1861

Even before the annexation of the Louisiana Florida Parishes by the United States, on December 7, 1810, the portion of West Florida east of the Mississippi River to the Perdido River was designated the county of Feliciana. On December 22, four parishes (Feliciana, East Baton Rouge, St. Helena, and St. Tammany) were created west of the Pearl River and attached to the Louisiana Territory. The Amite River was designated the eastern boundary and Bayou Manchac the southern boundary of East Baton Rouge Parish. These boundaries have remained the same to the present. The northern boundary of the parish, however, was originally designated as the T4S - T5S line (Goins and Caldwell 1995:42). The East Baton Rouge - East Feliciana boundary was moved in the antebellum period to its present location north of Port Hudson and Plains, although the western extremity of this boundary, between Port Hickey and Thomson Creek, is indefinite because of alterations in the course of the Mississippi River.

Baton Rouge was incorporated by the Louisiana legislature in 1817. The U.S. government decided to increase its military presence in the Baton Rouge area, and in 1819 began to build a fortified set of barracks on the old Fort New Richmond-Fort San Carlos site. The Baton Rouge population continued to grow as river traffic was increasing, and in 1822, 83 steamboats, 174 barges, and 441 flatboats docked at Baton Rouge. However, Baton Rouge was only a small town of about 2,300 persons in 1840 when it was designated the capital of Louisiana. The state legislature did not relocate from New Orleans to Baton Rouge until the neo-Gothic state capitol, designed by James H. Dakin, was completed in 1850. Commercial activity increased during the antebellum period, and in the 1850s, several new enterprises were established in the capital. These included John Hill's Baton Rouge iron foundry, the Missouri Mill, and the firm of Samuel Hart, which served as cotton factors, commission and forwarding merchants, grocers, and importers of "western" or Mississippi Valley produce (Draughon 1998:8-10).

On the eve of the Civil War, East Baton Rouge was not a particularly wealthy parish despite growth in the antebellum period. The total East Baton Rouge Parish population in 1860 was about 15,000 persons, of whom about 50 percent were slaves; Baton Rouge itself had a population of about 5,400 persons, of whom about 3,700 were free whites, 1,250 were slaves (23 percent of the total), and 490 persons were Free People of Color. In general, slaveholdings were not as large in East Baton Rouge Parish as in the river parishes to the west and south and in the Felicianas. Whereas the average slaveholding was fewer than 15 slaves in East Baton Rouge in 1860, it was more than 20 slaves per slaveholding in the river parishes. There were also fewer

large slaveholders in East Baton Rouge Parish than in the neighboring sugar and cotton parishes; fewer than 6 percent of East Baton Rouge slaveowners held 50 slaves or more. About 6000 acres of the parish were in cane and about 16,000 in corn, out of a total parish area of over 183,000 acres (Prichard 1938:1133). In 1860, East Baton Rouge had a lower percentage of area in improved land than all neighboring parishes except Livingston and St. Helena, with less than 20 percent of total Parish area improved. Farms were also significantly smaller and less valuable in East Baton Rouge than in the wealthier cotton and sugar parishes, with their huge estates (Hilliard 1984; Draughton 1998:12).

The Civil War

Two months after the election of Abraham Lincoln as president, Louisiana Governor Moore ordered state troops to seize the U.S. arsenal at Baton Rouge, an action predicated on an assumption that Louisiana would secede from the Union. The Louisiana troops took over the arsenal on January 10, 1861. Two weeks later, on January 26, the Louisiana Secession Convention, meeting in the State Capitol, voted 113 to 17 in favor of secession. The resounding majority belied significant minority opposition to secession, and a luke-warm enthusiasm for the Confederacy later manifested itself among many residents of Louisiana. Baton Rouge shared the misfortune that war brought to much of the state. In April 1862, only a little over a year after the shooting war began at Fort Sumter, Baton Rouge was visited by a Federal naval flotilla. Before the Yankees' arrival, the Louisiana state government fled Baton Rouge for Opelousas, and large quantities of cotton and liquor were burned on the Baton Rouge riverfront (Draughton 1998:13).

On May 7, another Federal naval force arrived at Baton Rouge, and two days later, troops took control of the arsenal and barracks. On May 18, a crevasse blocked roads south of the town to refugee traffic, just as Admiral Farragut arrived with the main force of Federal vessels and more troops. Ten days later, Federal sailors were fired upon by Confederate partisans at the Baton Rouge waterfront, and Farragut ordered a bombardment of the town from the Federal warships. The Capitol building, the Harney House (the town's most prominent hotel), St. Joseph's Catholic Church (the largest in Baton Rouge), and several other buildings were damaged. A civilian was killed by a shell, two drowned in the ensuing panic, and a handful were injured. The civil authorities quickly arranged a formal surrender to Farragut, and a larger body of troops were deployed by the Federals under General Thomas Williams (Winters 1963:103-105; Draughton 1998:13-14).

In early August 1862, the Confederates struck back at the Union forces at Baton Rouge. On the morning of August 5, a force of 2600 Confederates under General John C. Breckinridge attacked Baton Rouge after a tiring night march. The Confederate ironclad ram *Arkansas* failed to arrive in time for a coordinated attack and after engine failure, was scuttled upriver. Unable to capitalize on the hard-fought success of his men, Breckinridge withdrew in the afternoon. The Federals hastily fortified the town after their near-disaster, felling trees and tearing down buildings to create clear fields of fire for their artillery. Already seriously damaged by the recent battle and earlier actions, Baton Rouge was plundered by badly disciplined Union troops on August 13. Butler, fearful of an attack on New Orleans, ordered Baton Rouge burned to the ground and abandoned. After appeals that the presence of large orphan and insane asylums made this inhumane, Butler countermanded the order to torch the town. Nevertheless, a new frenzy of plundering broke out before the Union troops finally departed a devastated Baton Rouge on August 21 (Winters 1963:12112-123).

When Nathaniel P. Banks replaced Benjamin Butler in command of Union forces in December 1862, he ordered the reoccupation of Baton Rouge. On December 17, five Federal warships and about 8,000 troops arrived at a bleak Baton Rouge. The area was soon swarming with "contrabands," slaves who left their plantations to converge on Federal military centers. The Federal troops supplied themselves from the surrounding countryside, and while marauding and

plundering were officially forbidden, foraging expeditions put a heavy burden on the region. On December 28, careless troops ignited the Capitol building, which burned to a shell (Winters 1963: 105, 166-167).

In preparation for a campaign against Port Hudson in the spring of 1863, Banks moved 17,000 men to Baton Rouge in early March. He then advanced with 12,000 of them to positions 5 to 10 miles from the Port Hudson defenses. Farragut arrived with a strong fleet on March 11 and ran two of his vessels past Port Hudson on the night of March 14-15. Banks then withdrew his troops back to Bayou Montesano, to the south of the project area. His troops picked the area clean by foraging for a week and collecting all available cattle, mules, horses, sugar, and cotton until pulled back to Baton Rouge (Winters 1963:215-218). It is likely that the plantation of J.C. Elder at Scott's Bluff, only a mile from Bayou Montesano, was among those pillaged at this time.

Baton Rouge was next a staging area for Banks' Teche campaign in late March, and after his departure General Augur was left with 4,500 men to guard the town. Without immediate threat from the Confederates, the garrison complained about poor rations and boredom. Contrabands poured into Baton Rouge, and some were allowed to move into houses abandoned by the civilian population. Regiments were raised among the contrabands, and black and white troops as well as hired laborers worked constructing fortifications. On May 2, Colonel Benjamin H. Grierson arrived with the Sixth and Seventh Illinois Cavalry, triumphant after a lightning raid from Tennessee that covered eight hundred miles in 17 days. Grierson had confounded the Confederates and caused them serious damage. On May 8, the Federal fleet again began to bombard Port Hudson, and on May 18 Federal infantry under General Augur marched north from Baton Rouge to approach Port Hudson from the rear. The Union troops performed poorly but were not halted in skirmishes along the Bayou Sara road at Plains Store. By May 24, Confederate General Gardner and his troops found themselves trapped at Port Hudson and unable to withdraw in the face of Union reinforcements by river. Eventually outnumbering the Confederates five to one, the Federals captured Port Hudson, after great effort, when the fall of Vicksburg was confirmed in July (Winters 1963:242-246; Goins and Caldwell 1995:39).

Baton Rouge temporarily took on new importance with the recapture of Brashear City by the Confederates on June 23, 1863. However, the Confederates lacked the strength to maintain momentum, and by the autumn, the Union was back on the offensive. Baton Rouge was not again threatened seriously by Confederate forces for the remainder of the war, although troops from Baton Rouge periodically moved out against small Confederate forces in the Atchafalaya Basin and the Florida Parishes. Baton Rouge took on the character of a more permanently occupied city. Theatrical entertainments, circuses, and baseball games broke the monotony of garrison life. In April 1865, when news of Lincoln's assassination reached Baton Rouge, the town reacted much like other pacified cities. All businesses closed, public buildings were draped in black, and special services were held in the city's churches to honor the slain president of the United States (Winters 1963:404, 418).

Louisiana's Confederate military effort finally petered out in May 1865. On May 23, three commissioners from the commander of the West Louisiana district arrived in Baton Rouge to arrange the terms of surrender with the Federal authorities. Before anything could be accomplished, a second group of commissioners arrived from Shreveport, and the group then went to New Orleans, where surrender negotiations were concluded on May 26. General Kirby Smith signed on June 2, and on June 3, 1865, a Federal military order abolished slavery in Louisiana (Winters 1963:425-427).

Reconstruction and the Late-Nineteenth Century

The cost of war had been high for Baton Rouge and for its antebellum elites. A Baton Rouge newspaper estimated total damage during the Civil War at \$10.6 million, including the loss

of 100 buildings, 20,000 bales of cotton, losses of personal property to looting and destruction, and the loss of huge amounts of capital that had been invested in slaves. Meanwhile, the demographic character of Baton Rouge was transformed, as freedmen poured into the city to join the army or seek economic advancement. Constituting less than 25 percent of the Baton Rouge population in 1860, African-Americans made up over 50 percent by 1865 and remained a majority until 1920 (Draughon 1998:17).

Baton Rouge suffered the same racial tensions that divided much of the state during Reconstruction. Although the U.S. army remained in occupation, the local white citizenry reasserted their political and social dominance. A riot followed the 1870 elections, in which two African-Americans were killed, and the Army subsequently arrested 40 prominent whites. The U.S. Army withdrew from Baton Rouge at the end of Reconstruction in 1877, and in 1879 Baton Rouge was reinstated as the state capital. The state legislature returned to the (refurbished) capitol building in 1882 (Draughon 1998:17-18).

In 1880, Baton Rouge was still a small town, with about 7200 inhabitants. The greatest factor for growth of the Baton Rouge area in this period was the arrival of railroads on the east bank of the River, since previously the only railway in the area was the Baton Rouge, Grosse Tete, and Opelousas R.R., which ran west from Port Allen to Livonia. In 1883, the Yazoo & Mississippi Valley R.R. (later part of the Illinois Central System) was built traversing East Baton Rouge Parish from north to south, and the Texas & Pacific R.R. added Port Allen to its trunk line a few years later. The Scotland Station whistle-stop was established soon after completion of the Y. & M.V.R.R. line in the eastern portion of the plantation tract known as Scotland Plantation (discussed in greater detail below). When the hamlet grew to sufficient size to warrant a post office, the U.S. Postal Service (ignoring local usage here as elsewhere in Louisiana) dubbed the place Scotlandville, the name which has stuck (Goins and Caldwell 1995; Illinois Central Railroad 1893:239-241).

In the early-1890s, Baton Rouge had about 11,000 inhabitants and commerce had greatly expanded; the Capital Oil Mill (making cottonseed oil and meal), the Baton Rouge Brickyard Co., the Burton Lumber Co. (founded 1885), and the Artificial Ice and Cold Storage Co. were all large concerns, while smaller plants included a broom factory, a door, sash, and blind factory, and several moss and cotton gins. By 1893, Baton Rouge had two banks, electric lighting was available, and a municipal waterworks and street railways had been built. However, railroad interests and civic leaders noted the absence of other large mills, commercial cotton presses, central sugar factories, cooperages, or other manufacturies. Unimproved land in East Baton Rouge Parish was available at \$1-\$5 per acre, and improved farmland at \$5-\$20 per acre (Goins and Caldwell 1995; Illinois Central Railroad 1893:239-241).

The relocation of the Louisiana Seminary of Learning from Pineville to Baton Rouge in 1869 was an important development in the educational history of Louisiana. In 1870, the state legislature renamed the institution Louisiana State University, and in 1877, LSU absorbed the State Agricultural and Mechanical College (Draughon 1998:17).

The Twentieth Century

The population of Baton Rouge grew strongly during the decades before World War II. With a total population of about 11,300 persons at the turn of the century, in 1910, Baton Rouge and its immediate suburbs had about 15,000 persons. By 1925, the population had reached more than 43,000 persons, and grew to 50,000 persons by 1930. The population of greater Baton Rouge had grown to 72,000 persons by 1938 (LA Dept. of Agriculture and Immigration 1926, 1931; Thomson 1939:64).

Industrial and commercial development fueled the rapid population growth of Baton Rouge in the 1910s, 1920s, and 1930s. The single most momentous development in the economic history of Baton Rouge before World War II was the establishment in 1909 of a refinery immediately north of the city by the Humble Oil & Refining Co. unit of the Standard Oil Co. (later Esso and Exxon). Standard Oil, concerned over legal challenges in Texas, decided to locate in Baton Rouge after lengthy study of its national operations. This facility grew to be the largest refinery in the world; in 1930, its plant encompassed 1600 acres, had a daily refining capacity of over 110,000 barrels of crude oil per day, and employed over 5,000 men. As late as 1925, the Standard Oil plant was the only large industrial operation in Baton Rouge, and had no neighboring petrochemical plants until after 1935. In 1940, about one-third of Baton Rouge's working population was employed by Standard Oil (LA Dept. of Agriculture and Immigration 1926, 1931; Thomson 1939:64; Draughon 1998:21).

While the economic importance to Baton Rouge of the Standard Oil Co. refinery in this period was immense, other aspects of economic development were not ignored. Baton Rouge became a major freight transportation nexus in the pre-World War II era, served by five trunk railways by 1915: the Yazoo & Mississippi Valley R.R. (later the Gloster Southern and Illinois Central Gulf); the Louisiana Railway & Navigation R.R. (later the Louisiana & Arkansas); the Gulf Coast Lines R.R. (later the Illinois Central Gulf); the Southern Pacific R.R.; and the Baton Rouge, Hammond, & Eastern R.R. (later the Illinois Central Gulf), as well as from Port Allen by the Texas & Pacific R.R., the New Orleans, Texas, and Mexico R.R. (later Union Pacific and Louisiana & Arkansas), and Morgan's Louisiana and Texas R.R. (later Southern Pacific). By 1925, Baton Rouge ranked fifth in the entire Illinois Central system in freight tonnage, surpassed only by New Orleans, Memphis, St. Louis, and Chicago (LA Dept. of Agriculture and Immigration 1926, 1931; Thomson 1939; Goins and Caldwell 1995).

In 1909, the Plaquemine lock was built, and the following year the U.S. Congress designated Baton Rouge a port of entry for foreign commerce and customs offices were set up. In the early-1920s, after completion of the Plaquemine lock system, Baton Rouge began to take its potential as a port more seriously. The U.S. government guaranteed a 35-foot deep channel in the Mississippi River from Baton Rouge to the Gulf of Mexico, docks and terminals for ocean-going craft were built beginning in 1923, and by 1926, about 500 ocean-going steamships were coming into Baton Rouge annually with a total tonnage of 5 million long tons (5.6 million tons). Modern freight and bulk material transfer facilities were also constructed at municipal expense to facilitate barge and rail trans-shipment (LA Dept. of Agriculture and Immigration 1926, 1931; Thomson 1939; Goins and Caldwell 1995).

In addition to water and rail transportation advances, highway development also began during the 1920s. Most important of the developments in the pre-World War II period were the paving of most streets in Baton Rouge between 1923 and 1930, and nearly all of them by 1939; and the construction of a rail and highway bridge over the Mississippi River by the Public Works Administration, a New Deal agency. Carrying U.S. Highway 190 and the Texas & Pacific R.R. tracks, the bridge was begun in 1937 and completed in 1940 at a cost of between 10 and 12 million dollars (LA Dept. of Agriculture and Immigration 1926, 1931; Thomson 1939; Hansen 1971).

Besides transportation advantages, the low costs of fuel oil (supplied by Standard Oil), natural gas (supplied by pipeline from the Monroe field), and electricity (from the Stone and Webster generating plant) attracted other industries to the Baton Rouge area. Even the onset of the Great Depression did not eliminate economic growth. The million-dollar C.C. Mengel Co. veneer factory was big news when it opened in 1928; by 1938, more than \$35 million worth of industrial construction was under way in Baton Rouge. River traffic, however, took a downturn, and in 1936, the city leased its municipal dock to Federal Barge Lines (Thomson 1939; Draughon 1998:23).

The political career of Huey Long had a great impact on the character of the Louisiana capital. Long had the Neo-gothic capitol building replaced with an Art Deco skyscraper (completed in 1932), the tallest building in the south at the time of its construction. The LSU campus was redeveloped, and the administrations of Long and his successor O.K. Allen undertook the massive highway and bridge-building program that dramatically changed life not only in Baton Rouge but throughout the state.

By 1940, the population of Baton Rouge had reached about 34,700 persons, and East Baton Rouge Parish a total of over 88,400 persons. The population of the city of Baton Rouge and the Parish population had thus about tripled since 1900. Despite industrial and suburban growth in the Baton Rouge area during the 1920s and 1930s, East Baton Rouge Parish remained predominantly agricultural on the eve of World War II. Cotton, rice, and cane remained major crops, while dairying, beef cattle raising, and truck farming had grown in importance. In 1938, the value of agricultural products of East Baton Rouge Parish totaled over \$12 million (Thomson 1939:65; Goins and Caldwell 1995).

World War II accelerated the trend of petrochemical industries locating in the Mississippi River corridor, with Baton Rouge anchoring the northern end of this development at the head of deep-water navigation. In 1947, the governments of East Baton Rouge Parish and the City of Baton Rouge merged. The 1950s through the 1970s were a period of growth in the petroleum and petrochemical industries, and Baton Rouge grew right along, spreading out into suburbs to the north, east, and south. During the 1970s alone, Baton Rouge's population grew almost 25 percent. Scotlandville became part of the incorporated City of Baton Rouge in 1978. Other suburban areas followed the same course, greatly expanding the municipal boundaries (Hansen 1970; Goins and Caldwell 1995).

The petroleum and petrochemical industries fell into a slump in the second half of the 1980s. Consequently, the population growth that had characterized Baton Rouge for most of the twentieth century came to a halt. Between 1980 and 1990, the total population of Baton Rouge grew by less than one-tenth of one percent, but the presence of state government and a diversified economic base reduced some of the impact of the oil industry slump. East Baton Rouge Parish had the lowest rate of unemployment and the highest per capita income among all south Louisiana parishes during the second half of the 1980s. Despite suburban sprawl, some aspects of agriculture remained strong in East Baton Rouge Parish, and in 1990, over 25 percent of the Parish remained farmland. Cotton and cane growing had declined, but during the second half of the 1980s, Baton Rouge was surpassed as a producer of cattle by only one of the Florida Parishes, rural Tangipahoa Parish. During this same period, East Baton Rouge was in the top five parishes for value added by manufacturing, and had relatively strong regional ranking in employment in wholesale trade; retail trade; and finance, insurance, and real estate (Goins and Caldwell 1995).

River and deep-water commerce remained important to Baton Rouge in the 1990s. The Port of Baton Rouge ranked second in the state behind New Orleans, and East Baton Rouge Parish ranked number three behind Orleans and Jefferson Parish in tourist revenues (Draughon 1998; Goins and Caldwell 1995).

CHAPTER 5 HISTORIC BACKGROUND OF SCOTT'S BLUFF AND SOUTHERN UNIVERSITY

Introduction

The Southern University and Agricultural and Mechanical College campus lies to the west of the intersection of the Kansas City Southern and Illinois Central Rail Road tracks at Scotlandville (formerly also known as Scotland Station). Scotlandville was unincorporated until 1978, when it was added to the incorporated area of the City of Baton Rouge. The campus is bounded on its western edge by a portion of Scott's (sometimes Scott or even Scot) Bluff (or Bluffs) and the Mississippi River. The Bluff portion of the Southern University campus encompasses a plantation tract that was historically known by a variety of names, as indicated below. The project area is bounded on the east by G. Leon Netterville Drive (formerly College Drive), as indicated in Figure 1.

Scott's Bluff to 1914

Baton Rouge received its name as the location of a red-painted pole at the boundary between the territories of the Bayagoula and the Houma tribes during the period of early French exploration of Louisiana, as discussed above. The Tunica established a village at the former Houma village site, probably during the 1720s. The Tunica resided in the Bluff area into the Spanish colonial period, until population pressure in the area caused them to abandon the Scott's Bluff location.

Albrecht (1945) states, on the basis of a plat in the Archives of Spanish West Florida, that Widow Margaret O'Brien acquired a grant at the site of the Tunica village in 1785 (Figure 2). The plat states that the tract acquired by O'Brien had a frontage of 15 arpents (approximately 2880 feet or 1.83 mile). Another plat drawn up for the reconfirmation of a British grant of an adjacent tract made in 1776 to Francis Pouset, shows O'Brien's tract approximately one mile above Bayou Montesano. O'Brien's tract therefore encompassed both sides of Lake Kernan in the midst of the Southern University campus (Albrecht 1945:44); the bayou shown in Figure 2 is the outlet of Lake Kernan to the River. The O'Brien tract probably comprised T6S R1W: 39 (with an original depth of 40 arpents, approximately 7680 feet) and the portion of Section 50 north of modern Harding Boulevard, giving a frontage of 15 arpents. Section lines were established after the annexation of West Florida in 1810 and do not necessarily correspond to Spanish grant boundaries.

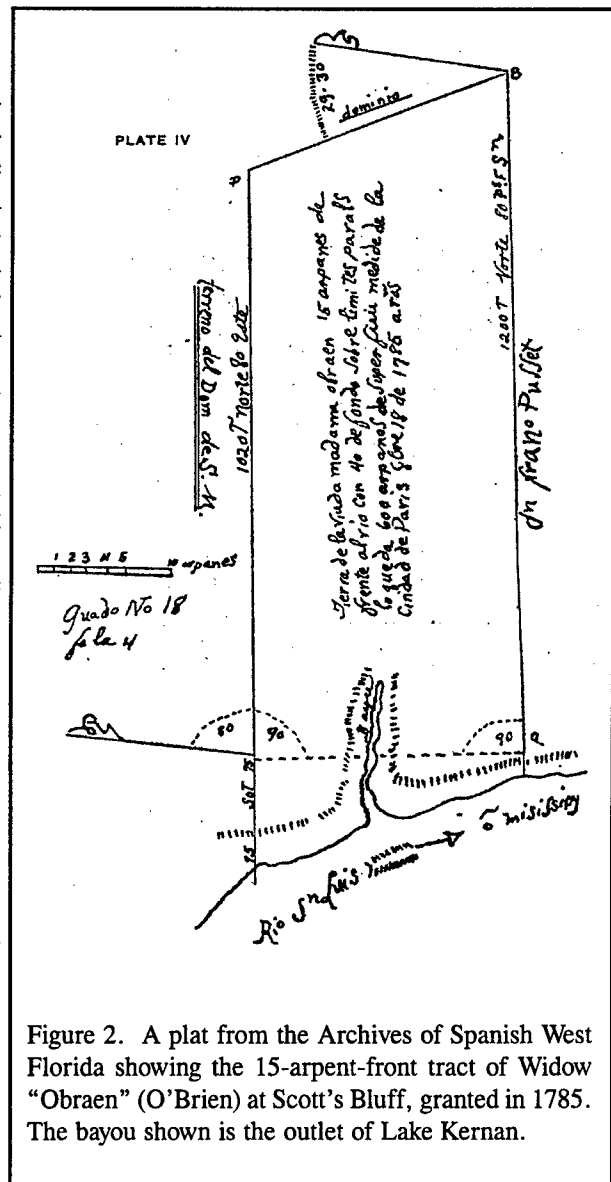


Figure 2. A plat from the Archives of Spanish West Florida showing the 15-arpent-front tract of Widow "Obraen" (O'Brien) at Scott's Bluff, granted in 1785. The bayou shown is the outlet of Lake Kernan.

Unfortunately, other documentary evidence concerning the Widow O'Brien is scanty. The 1810 U.S. census for Baton Rouge Parish lists a Widow Abren or Obren, likely O'Brien, but this

person was evidently a woman under 27 years of age, with three children under the age of 10 and the owner of six slaves (U.S. Census 1810). Clearly this person (b. 1784 or later) is too young to have received this tract in 1785, although it is possible that her deceased husband actually acquired the grant in 1785, and she received it in his succession. By 1811, Widow Margaret O'Brien had married a man named Grimmel, and on Nov. 18, 1811, "Pequi" or Peggy O'Brien Grimmel gave power of attorney to prominent local citizen Philip Hicky (ASWF XIX:214).

Prior to 1820, the O'Brien tract had been acquired by Charles Bushnell. In the 1820 U.S. Census, Charles Bushnell, his wife, three children, and three slaves are listed as residents of East Baton Rouge Parish. Bushnell may have sold the O'Brien tract to Fulwar Skipwith by this time (COB JK:359). Skipwith, a former U.S. consul to various West Indian islands and U.S. Consul-General in Paris, was governor of the short-lived Republic of West Florida from September to December 1810. In the 1820 census, Skipwith, his wife, three children, and 25 slaves are listed as inhabitants of East Baton Rouge Parish. The historical marker present on Scott's Bluff states that former Governor Fulwar Skipwith lived on the Scott's Bluff tract in the 1830s, although documentary evidence suggests that this is not the case. Skipwith, after 1809, resided not on Scott's Bluff but at his Montesano Plantation, which consisted of T6S R1W:37 and most of Section 50 (Original Township Maps, EBRP; Arthur 1934 n.p.).

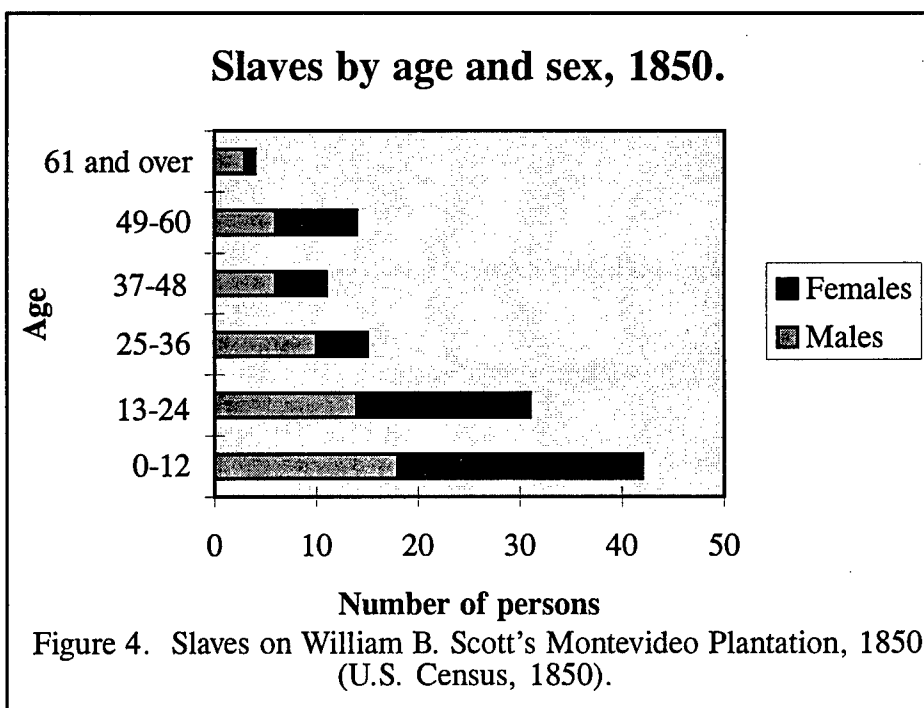
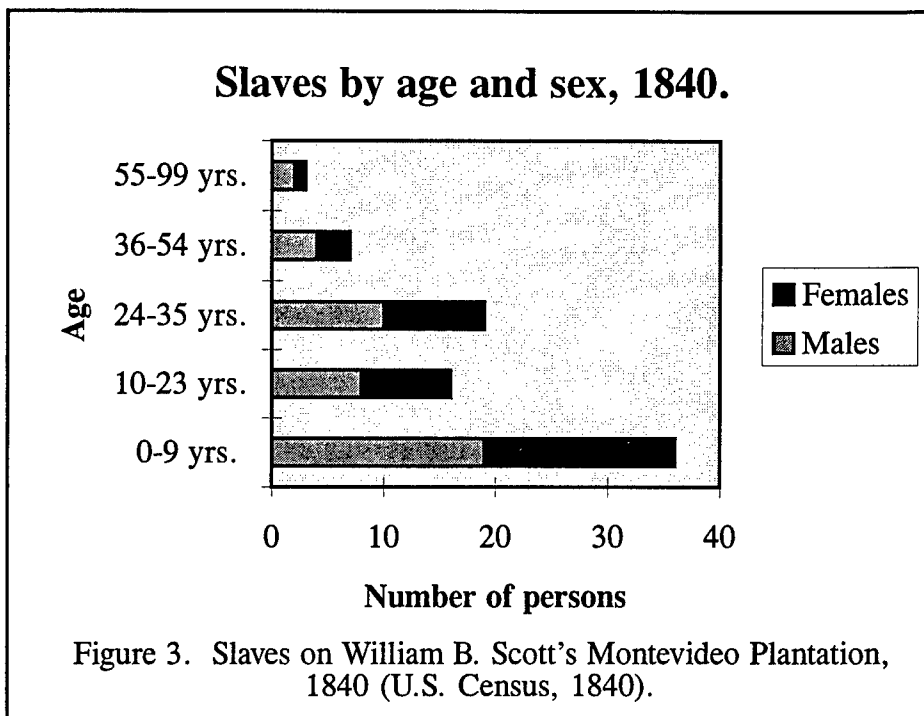
Fulwar Skipwith's daughter Lelia married Thomas Bolling Robertson, probably before October 1822. On October 14, 1822, Fulwar Skipwith and his wife donated a seven-by-40 arpent tract to Lelia, who was already married to Robertson (COB JK:359). This tract was the Scott's Bluff tract formerly owned by Margaret O'Brien, which Fulwar Skipwith had obtained from Charles Bushnell. Evidently Robertson and his wife made their Scott's Bluff property home after 1822, although documentation on this point is contradictory. It is also likely that Fulwar Skipwith spent his retirement on his own Montesano Plantation south of the project area, rather than on his daughter and son-in-law's property upriver.

Thomas Bolling Robertson, the third governor of the State of Louisiana, contributes to Louisiana's colorful political history. A native of Virginia (and proud descendant of Pochahontas), Robertson was appointed secretary of the Territory of Orleans in 1807. Robertson consistently displayed a disdain for Louisiana's inhabitants and a lack of political acumen, but despite these shortcomings he enjoyed several public appointments and elected posts. Among his foes were Governor William C.C. Claiborne, and Robertson very thoroughly alienated the Gallic population of the Orleans Territory and then the State of Louisiana. He served briefly as Attorney General of the territory, and was elected to the House of Representatives Louisiana's first (and for a time, only) Congressman. He declined reelection to Congress to run for Governor. Robertson was elected in 1820 on a plurality of popular votes, under the influence of Governor Villere's compromise scheme to alternate the governorship between Gallic and American candidates. Robertson quickly enraged the Gallic portion of the electorate, and controversy rose to fever pitch over the issue of moving the capitol to Baton Rouge. Opposing the move to Baton Rouge, the Gallic forces sought to expel the Florida Parish members from the Louisiana Senate on the grounds that the addition of the Florida parishes to the Orleans Territory was unconstitutional. An outbreak of armed violence was only narrowly avoided. Before the dust had settled Robertson vetoed the 1823 "Usury Bill," further antagonizing the Gallic bloc. Then, Americans in the New Orleans militia refused to obey orders of naturalized militia officers, and rioting broke out. Violent disturbances spasmodically reappeared for over a year. Robertson's popularity sank even among the Americans, and in November 1824 he resigned the Governorship to accept a Federal judgeship. Poorly qualified for this position by a lack of substantial legal training, Robertson further damaged his political reputation after the 1826 election. During the impeachment trial of a Florida Parish judge accused of failing to submit election returns to the Governor, Robertson astounded the legislature by reporting that "thanks to God and His prophets," he had found the missing returns "in the bed of his greyhound bitch" (quoted in Dawson 1990:91-95).

With his political fortunes at a low ebb and in failing health, Robertson took a trip to the spa at White Sulphur Springs, Virginia, where he died in 1828 (Dawson 1990:95). Lelia Skipwith Robertson may have remained away from Louisiana for a time, since the 1830 U.S. Census for Louisiana contained no entry for her (U.S. Census 1830).

On April 10, 1839, widow Lelia Skipwith Robertson sold the plantation tract to Dr. William B. Scott. During Scott's tenure the bluffs became known as Scott's Bluff(s). William B. Scott named his 1220-acre farm the Montevideo Plantation (Succession Flat Files #1064 EBRP). Montevideo Plantation encompassed T6S R1W:39 and was twice as large as O'Brien's original grant. William B. Scott, his wife, and four children are shown in the 1840 census as resident in East Baton Rouge Parish; Scott owned 87 slaves at this date (U.S. Census 1840). Figure 3 provides the age and sex distribution of Scott's slave force in 1840, indicating a fairly "mature" or balanced slave force of families with children. It is possible that the Southern University Archives Building was originally constructed during Scott's ownership (Louisiana National Register 1998).

In the 1850 census, Scott had 117 slaves on his plantation. Figure 4 indicates the age and sex ratio of Scott's slave force at this time. The consistency of the cohorts suggests that there had been little alteration of the slave force by sale or purchase during the 1840s. Scott possibly grew cotton rather than sugar cane, since no sugar production figures for William B. Scott appear in Champomier's *Statement of the Sugar Crop Made in Louisiana dur-*



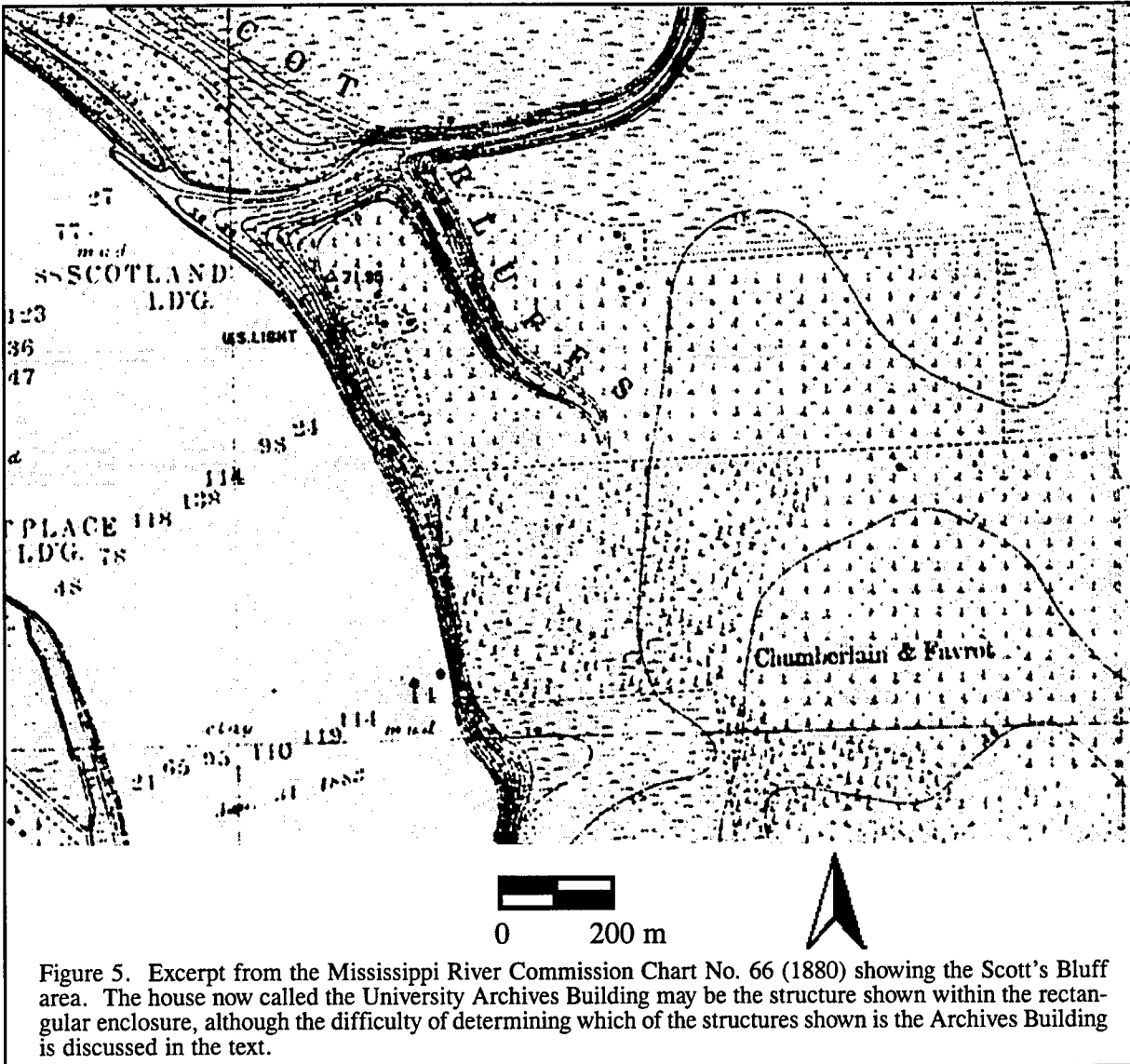
ing the years of his ownership. Following William B. Scott's death on June 22, 1852, his wife Margaret Scott received the entirety of the interest in the property (Succession Flat Files #1064 EBRP). The La Tourette map published in 1853 still shows Dr. William B. Scott as owner of a tract corresponding to T6S R1W:39, and indicates that by this date Fulwar Skipwith's Montesano plantation had been acquired by Col. James McCalop (La Tourette 1853).

On March 24, 1853, Margaret Scott sold the Montevideo Plantation of 1220 acres, with 105 slaves, to Lewis G. Stirling (COB H:256). Stirling died in 1855, and the plantation (now called Scotland Plantation) was acquired by Alfred A. Williams on December 5th of that year, for the purchase price of \$20,000 (COB J:612). Williams was a West Baton Rouge Parish sugar planter. Williams had East Baton Rouge entries in Champomier's *Statement of the Sugar Crop Made in Louisiana* after 1851, but he had evidently also purchased the neighboring Montesano Plantation from McCalop or a successor. By 1858 at the latest, Williams had sold Scotland Plantation, evidently consisting of Section 39, to John C. Elder. It is likely that during Williams' ownership the old Montevideo Plantation slave community was dispersed among Williams' plantation properties. Norman's *Chart* (Norman 1858), shows Williams as the proprietor of the tract corresponding to section 50, while J.C. Elder is shown as proprietor of a tract corresponding to Section 39. Also notable on Norman's Chart is a sawmill located on the riverbank at the bayou outlet to Lake Kernan (Norman 1858).

A.A. Williams and J.C. Elder continued to operate their respective plantations, Williams growing sugar and Elder probably growing cotton, into the Civil War years. In 1868, Elder's plantation, called interchangeably the Elder Place or Scotland Plantation, was seized by the East Baton Rouge Parish Sheriff and sold along with several other tracts to the Citizen's Bank of Louisiana on June 23 of that year (COB X:105).

The Citizen's Bank continued to own the Scotland Plantation or Elder Place for 18 years, the longest period of proprietorship of the tract. It may have been leased to a succession of cotton farmers. The earliest available map of the property indicating buildings is Mississippi River Commission Chart No. 66 (Figure 5). It was prepared in 1879-1880 during the Citizen's Bank ownership. The MRC map shows only three buildings on the Scott's Bluff portion of the tract; one lies outside of a rectangular enclosure at its northern end, one is within the northern portion of the enclosure, and another is located within a small square enclosure on the eastern edge of the larger enclosure. One of the buildings depicted is almost certainly the Southern University Archives Building, which was probably constructed at some time in the antebellum period. However, it is difficult to state definitively which of the structures shown might be the extant building. Conclusions cannot be drawn on the basis of the benchmark on the bluff, called the Allsworth benchmark on the 1921 edition of MRC Chart No. 66. This benchmark was at an elevation of nearly 72 feet in 1880, while the current benchmark, called the Scott benchmark on the 1939 USGS quad map, is in a different location at an elevation of 66 feet. Incidentally, the benchmark is shown on the wrong side of G. Leon Netterville Drive on the current USGS quad map (1994). The bluffline west of the three structures is shown as wooded on the 1880 MRC. Other structures, likely quarters and other ancillary farm buildings, were located east of what is now Lake Kernan. These structures were on a plantation road that ran perpendicular to the Bayou Sara Road, at the eastern edge of the tract. Fields were indicated south of the plantation road on the 1880 MRC.

On January 20, 1886, a 540-acre tract referred to as "Scott's Bluff or the Elder Place" was purchased from the Citizen's Bank by the partnership of Adolphus de Britton, Thomas L. Miller, and Gilbert C. Miller (COB 8:676). De Britton bought out the Miller's interest on December 5, 1889, for the sum of \$6,000 (COB 12:127). On February 25, 1896, David S. Dooley purchased the Scotland Plantation from A. de Britton (COB 12:127). Dooley sold the tract to James H. Gibbens on January 20, 1902 (COB 27:259), but Gibbens quickly turned over the property to Edward L. Woodside. Woodside also quickly sold the plantation, which was acquired by Thomas J. Kernan on July 22, 1903 (COB 30:341). Thomas J. Kernan died on January 9, 1911, and in his



succession, the Scotland Plantation was acquired by his son, Clive W. Kernan. C.W. Kernan sold a 135.63 acre portion of the plantation, containing most of the plantation buildings, to "the Southern University" on March 14, 1914, for the sum of \$5,764.27 (COB 53:461).

Southern University

The lengthy process whereby the Louisiana State Board of Education chose the railroad hamlet of Scotlandville as the site of the "new" Southern University is dealt with in detail in Vincent (1980). In brief, after a decision was made to move the school from New Orleans, the location of the university was controversial for a number of reasons. Not least of the considerations was opposition from white landowners. Several locations in south Louisiana were considered, but many white residents in these communities feared that their property values would decline with proximity to the school. Some commentators emphasized the vocational aspects of education at the school to ameliorate those who expressed downright racist opposition to the whole concept of a "negro" college. The Scotlandville location was something of a compromise, and was recommended from among the possibilities by Joseph S. Clark, named by the Board of Education as the new President of Southern University. T.H. Harris, State Superintendent of Education, made the ultimate decision of location. The relative obscurity and isolation of the

Scotlandville site was actually considered a plus by some elements of white opinion, as was pointed out in a 1914 Baton Rouge newspaper editorial. Nevertheless, the site had certain advantages. It was accessible by the Mississippi River, and was served by two railroad lines, the Yazoo & Mississippi Valley R.R. and the Louisiana Railway & Navigation Co., whose tracks intersected at Scotland Station (Hall and Simms-Brown 1979:2; Vincent 1980; Dr. Charles Vincent, personal communication, 1999).

The tract purchased from C.W. Kernan corresponded approximately to the improved area shown on the 1880 MRC, with a lower or southern boundary where Harding Boulevard is today; an irregular boundary east of Lake Kernan, and then following the north side of the plantation road (Swan Avenue, long the only access road to the University); and a rear line at the Yazoo & Mississippi Valley R.R. (later the Gloster Southern and Illinois Central Gulf) (COB 53:461). When Southern University was established at Scotlandville in the spring of 1914, only the buildings of the "Kernan Plantation" were on the property, consisting of about 14 or 15 structures. A smaller number of buildings were located on the Bluff (Figure 6). The buildings included a house currently known as the Archives Building, which was moved to its present location by 1925. Perhaps 10 dilapidated worker's quarter cabins were present, plus a barn, a stable, and some sheds.

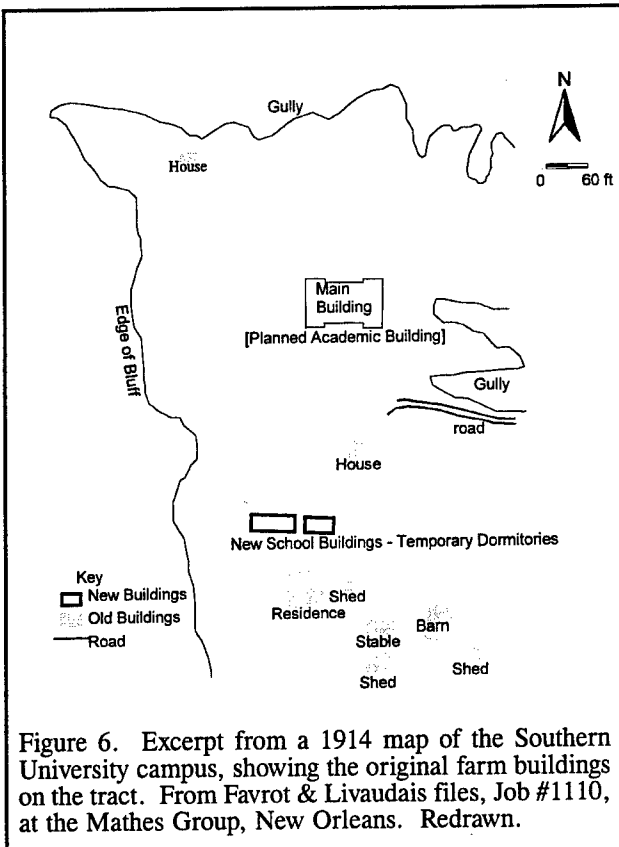


Figure 6. Excerpt from a 1914 map of the Southern University campus, showing the original farm buildings on the tract. From Favrot & Livaudais files, Job #1110, at the Mathes Group, New Orleans. Redrawn.

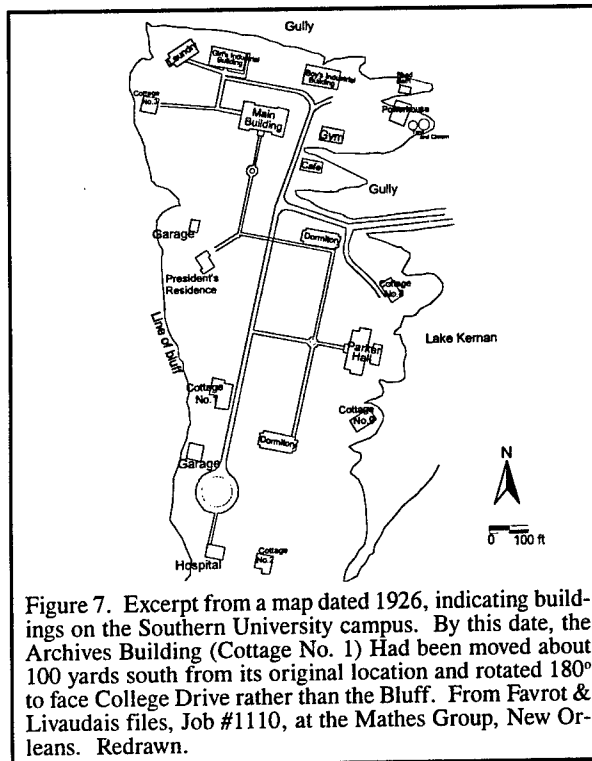


Figure 7. Excerpt from a map dated 1926, indicating buildings on the Southern University campus. By this date, the Archives Building (Cottage No. 1) had been moved about 100 yards south from its original location and rotated 180° to face College Drive rather than the Bluff. From Favrot & Livaudais files, Job #1110, at the Mathes Group, New Orleans. Redrawn.

The first permanent buildings constructed on the Southern University Campus were designed by the prominent New Orleans architectural firm of Favrot & Livaudais. Perhaps not coincidentally, the brother of architect Charles H. Favrot was Leo Favrot, appointed before 1914 by Superintendent Thomas H. Harris as director of the Negro School Division of the Louisiana Department of Education. Documents concerning the design and construction of the campus buildings, including communications between Superintendent Harris, J.S. Clark, and Favrot and Livaudais are contained in T.H. Harris' correspondence at the Watson Memorial Library, Northwestern State University, Natchitoches. Favrot and Livaudais were responsible for the design of all major Southern University Buildings designed and constructed by 1928 as well as the landscape design. In addition, all of the original university buildings surviving on Scott's Bluff are products of the Favrot and Livaudais firm (Figures 7 and 8). The Mathes Group in New Orleans, descendants of the Favrot and Livaudais firm, have the original plans for eight of the cam-

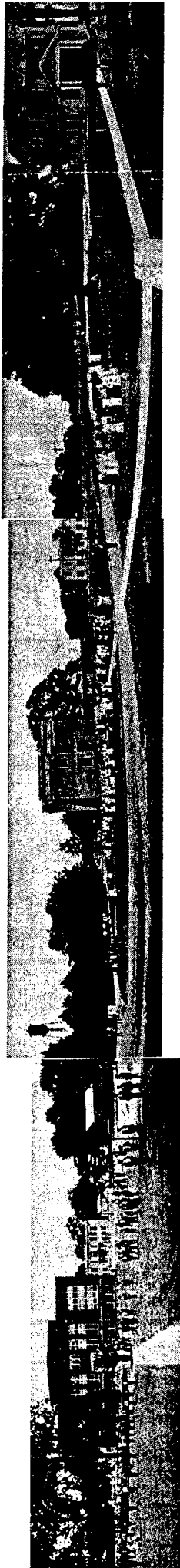


Figure 8. Panoramic view of the Bluff in the early 1920s. Shown from left to right are the Academic Building, the Mechanical Arts Building, a cafe, the pressure tank at the power plant, a dormitory, a faculty cottage, Parker Dining Hall, and the President's residence. Reproduced from Vincent (1980).

pus buildings on the Bluff, as stated below in the individual discussions of the buildings. The M.L. Harvey Auditorium, one of the surviving 1920s buildings, was constructed by the African-American contracting firm of Connors, Brandt, & Bell, who built the adjoining Science Building, now demolished (Harris 1963:141; Vincent 1980; *The Southernite* 1979:4).

The earliest photographs showing the Southern University campus were taken between 1914 and the early 1920s, while the temporary buildings were in use, as shown in Figures 9 through 12. Later photos showing the original permanent buildings are shown in Figures 13 through 21. These photos show that the tree cover of the bluff area has remained comparable to earlier in the century, albeit with the loss of some mature trees. The loss of many of these trees is likely due to bluffline erosion, which has brought the edge of the bluff an unknown distance closer to the remaining historic structures. This is supported by aerial photographs, the first available from 1937 and the most recent from 1996 (Figures 22 through 27). However, the Bluff maintains much of the open, rural character it would have had at the time Southern University was established on the Kernan tract.

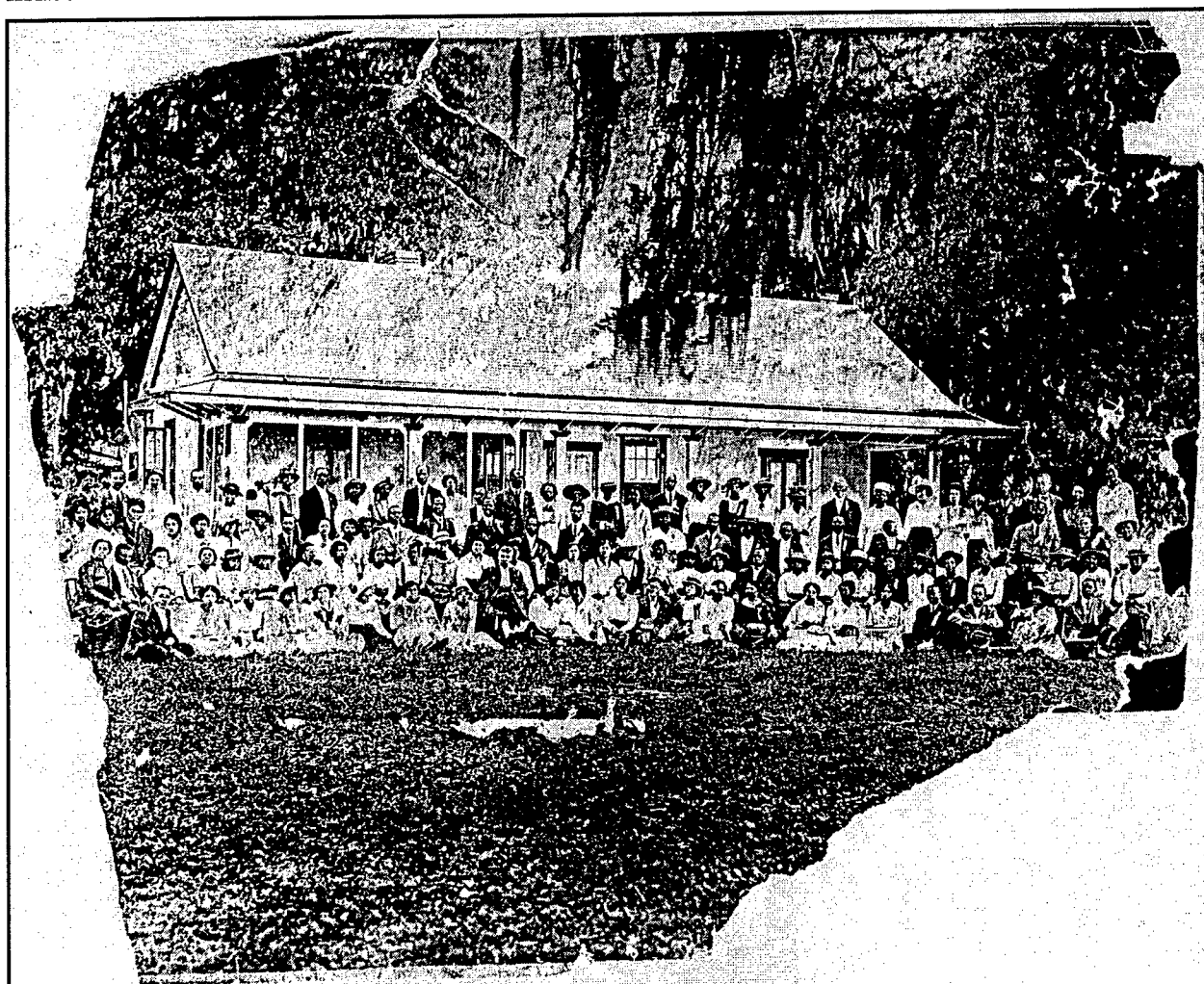


Figure 9. The Southern University Archives Building or "Kernan Plantation House." It is shown here in its original location, about 100 yards north of its present location and facing the Bluff. The photo dates to sometime from 1914 to the early 1920s. Southern University President J.S. Clark is probably the man seated in a chair in the front row. The weathering and the insect screening on the gallery have since been removed (Southern University Archives).

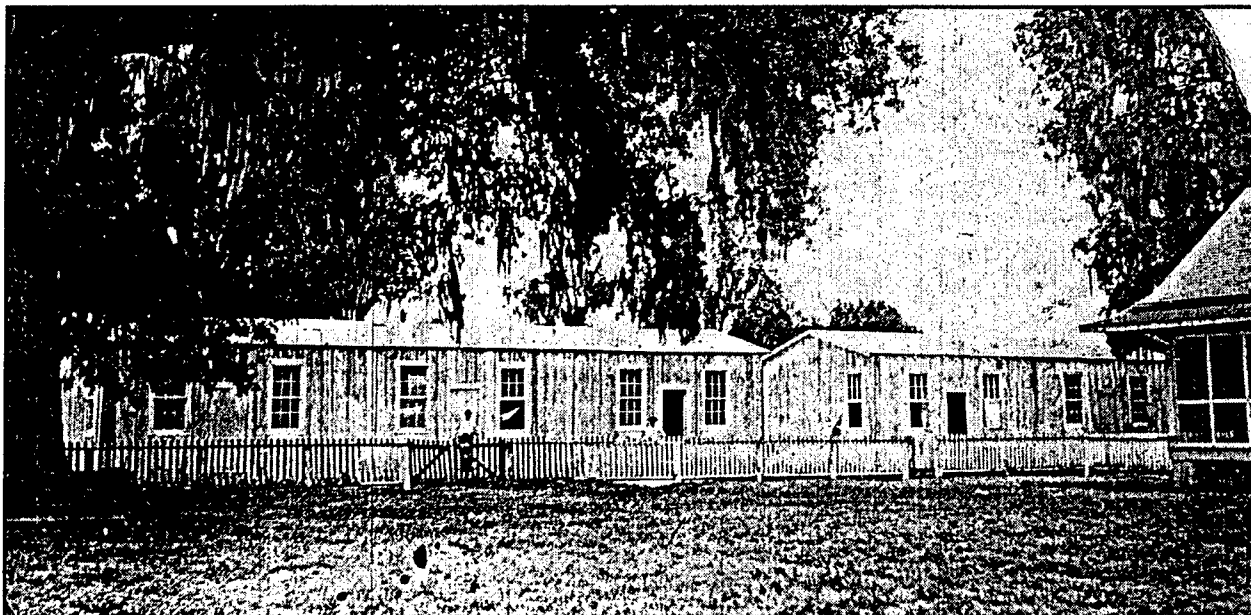


Figure 10. Temporary dormitories near the University Archives Building (at right), probably photographed sometime between 1914 and 1920. These dormitories housed male students and faculty and were located in the vicinity of the current President's Residence (Southern University Archives).

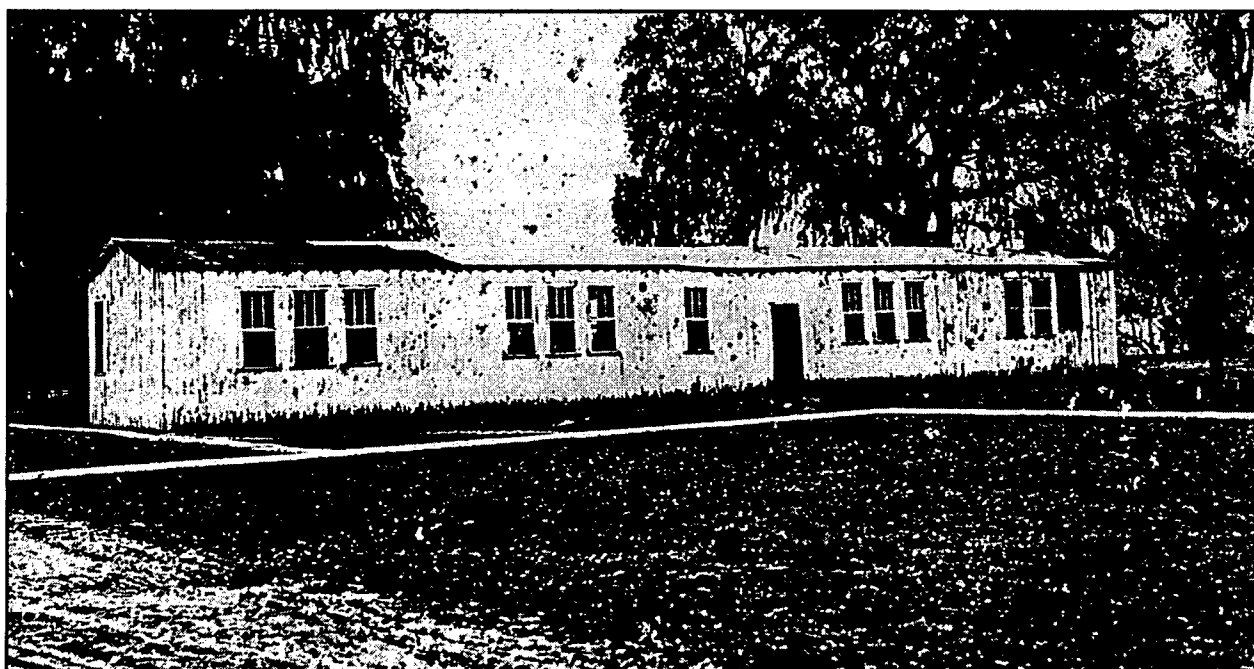


Figure 11. Another of the temporary buildings constructed on the Southern University Campus soon after relocation to the site. The location and use of this building are not known, although it was probably located somewhere on Scott's Bluff (Southern University Archives).



Figure 12. A commencement exhibition of domestic arts, industrial arts, and agricultural products of the Senior class, held during the earliest years of Southern University. Temporary dormitories and a gable of the archives building are visible in the rear, indicating that this location is in the vicinity of the contemporary M.L. Harvey Auditorium (Southern University Archives).

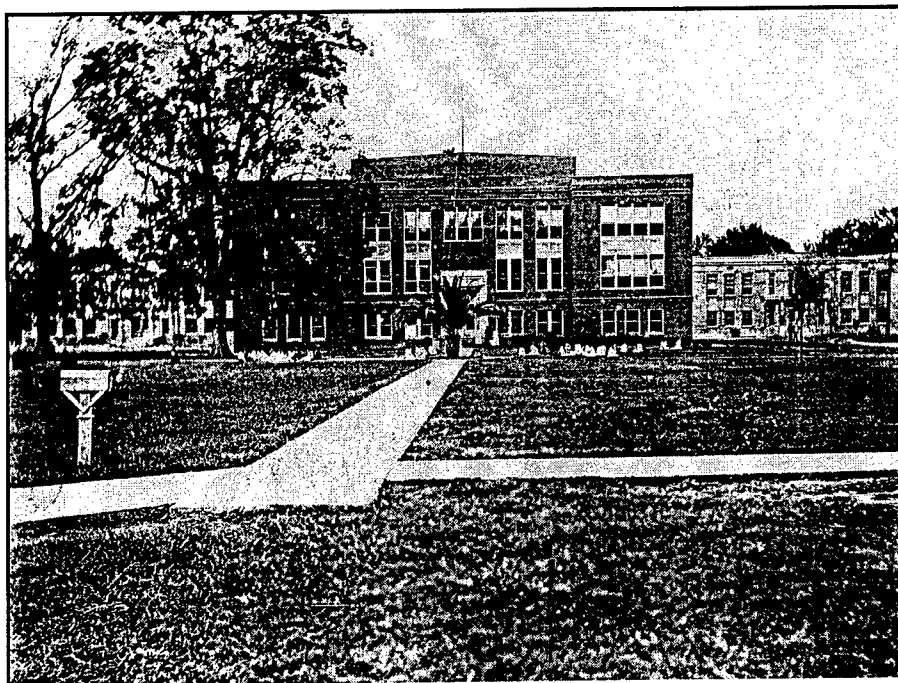


Figure 13. The Academic Building, completed in 1917. Probably photographed in the early 1920s. It has been demolished. To the left rear is the Home Economics Building, and to the right rear is its twin, the Mechanical Arts Building, currently AROTC, in its original form (Southern University Archives).

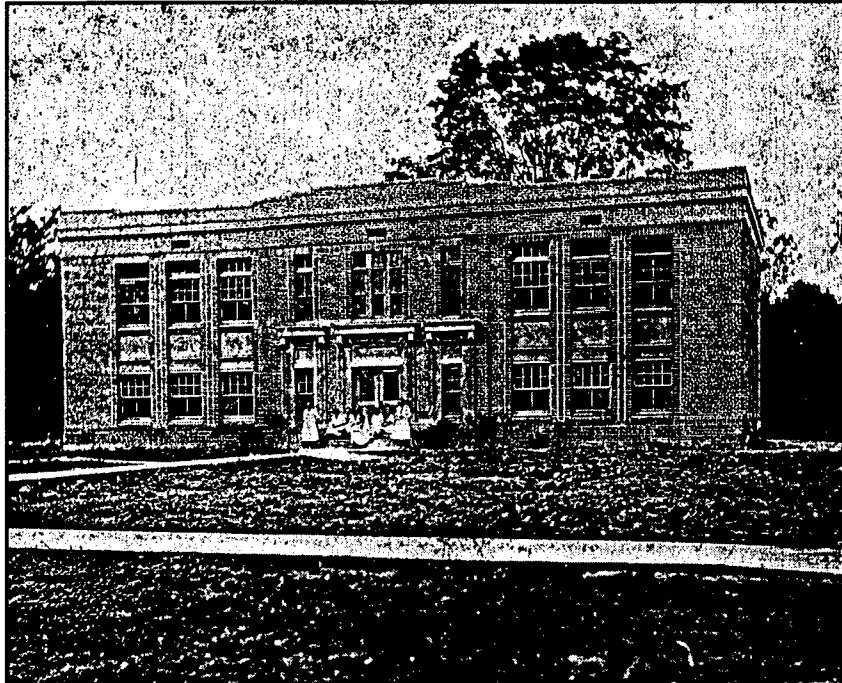


Figure 14. The Home Economics Building, completed in 1920, probably photographed in the early-1920s. It later served as the Commerce Building. It has been named Ronald E. McNair Hall and currently houses NROTC. The exterior of the Home Economics Building was identical to the Mechanical Arts Building, completed one year later. The exterior of McNair Hall has not been substantially modified. The Mechanical Arts Building was enlarged by adding flanking units to the original building in the World War II era (Southern University Archives).

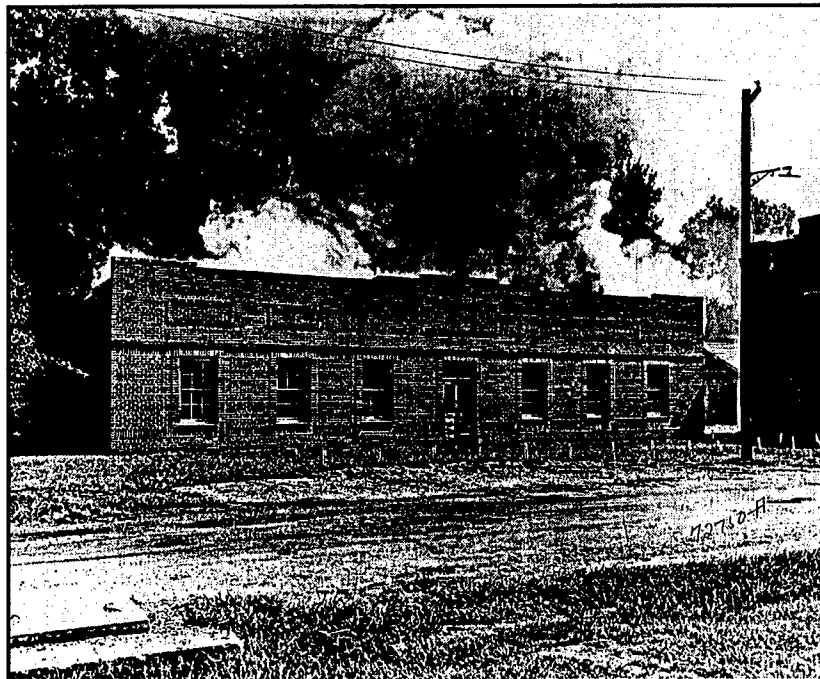


Figure 15. The Machine Shop, completed in 1921. Photographed during a fire in the late-1950s. It is currently the ROTC Supply Building (Southern University Archives).

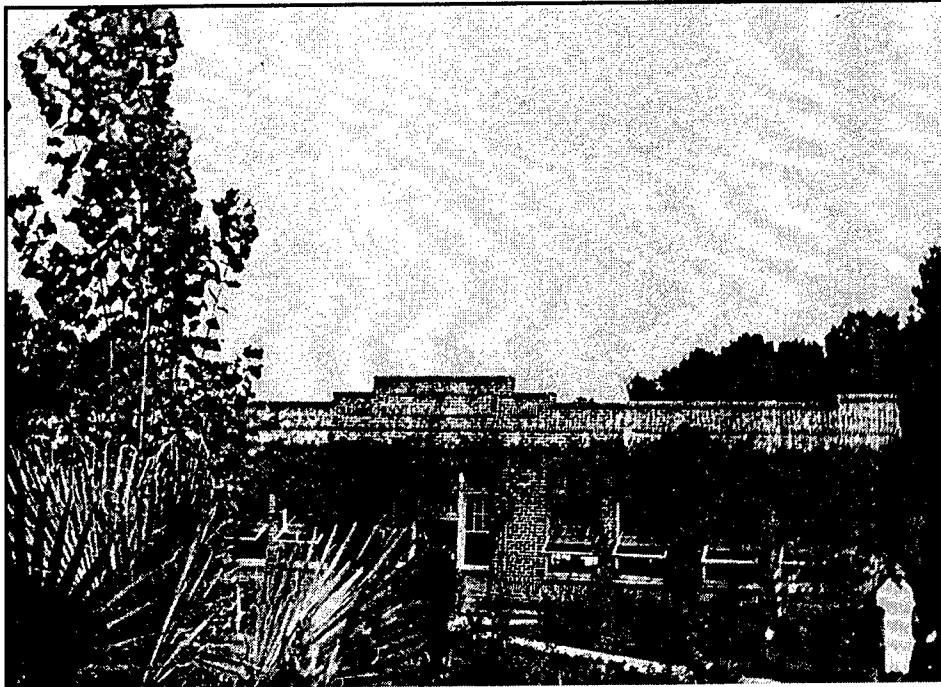


Figure 16. The Laundry Building, completed in 1922, as originally constructed. Photographed in the 1920s or 1930s. Before 1937, a second story was added to the Laundry Building to serve as a dormitory and named Riverside Hall (Southern University Archives).



Figure 17. The Laundry Building/Riverside Hall dormitory, second floor completed before 1937, and photographed in 1955. The facade and parapet details of the original Laundry were replicated at an enlarged scale on the second floor addition to this extant building (Southern University Archives).



Figure 18. The President's Residence, probably constructed in the early-1920s. This house was demolished ca. 1965 for construction of the current president's residence (Southern University Archives).

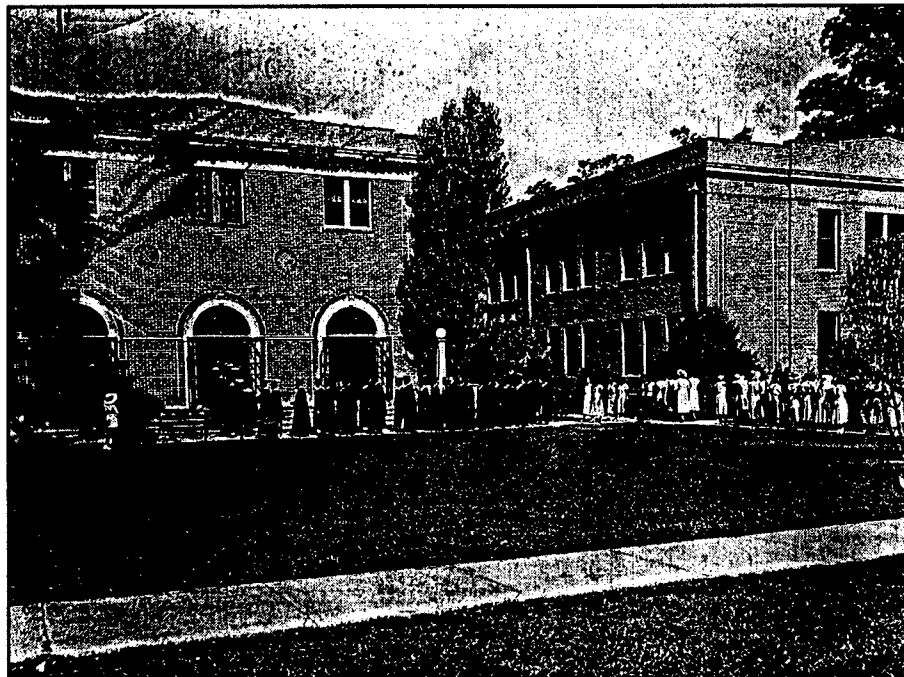


Figure 19. The M.L. Harvey Auditorium (left) and the Science Building (right), both completed in 1928. Probably photographed in the 1930s. Designed by Favrot & Livaudais and built by African-American contractors Connors, Brandt, and Bell. The Science Building has been demolished and the Harvey Auditorium has been altered (Southern University Archives).



Figure 20. Another view of the M.L. Harvey Auditorium (left) and the Science Building (right), photographed ca. 1956 (The Cat 1956).

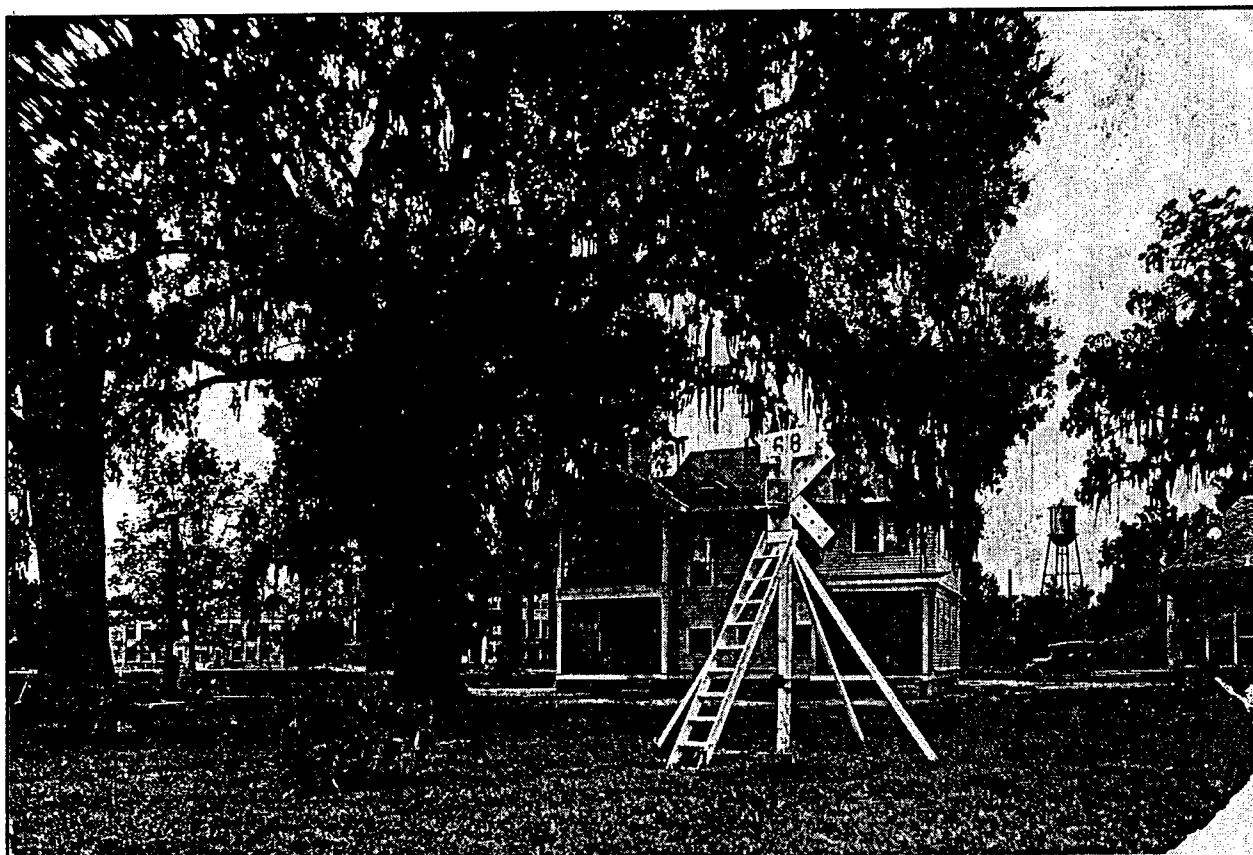


Figure 21. A view of the Southern University Campus from the Bluff edge, about 1922-1925. In the foreground is the U.S. Navigation Light, north of its current location. Behind the light is the original Presidents's Residence. Visible to the rear are: left, the Home Economics Building (McNair Hall); the Academic Building; behind the automobile, the power plant water tank and right, the University Archives (in its original location) (Southern University Archives).

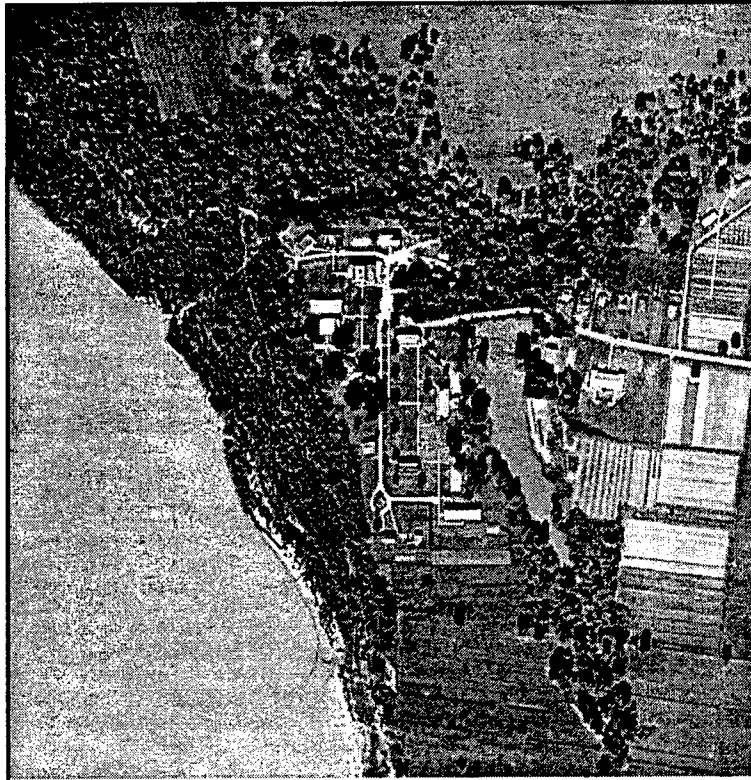


Figure 22. Aerial photograph of the Southern University Campus, 1937 (NODCOE).



Figure 23. Aerial photograph of the Southern University Campus, 1944 (NODCOE).



Figure 24. Aerial photograph of the Southern University Campus, 1977 (NODCOE).



Figure 25. Aerial photograph of the Southern University Campus, 1981 (NODCOE).

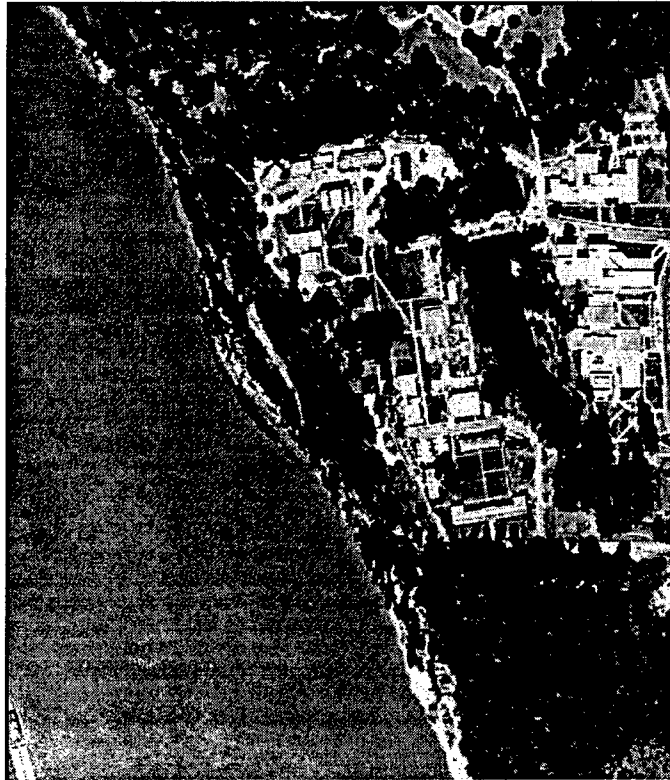


Figure 26. Aerial photograph of the Southern University Campus, 1989 (NODCOE).



Figure 27. Aerial photograph of the Southern University Campus, 1996 (NODCOE).

Southern University eventually expanded beyond the area in immediate proximity to Scott's Bluff and the ravine leading from Lake Kernan to the River (Figure 28). Several other important early university buildings were built in 1928, including the Music Building (originally a dorm), Parker Dining Hall, and old Senior Dorm. These formed three sides of a quadrangle, the fourth side being College Drive, with Parker Hall facing the bluff. All three of these buildings have been demolished. Clark Hall was also built in 1928, eventually forming one side of a quadrangle on the southern part of the historic campus. It is the only 1920s-vintage building on the campus to survive except for those in the Bluff project area.

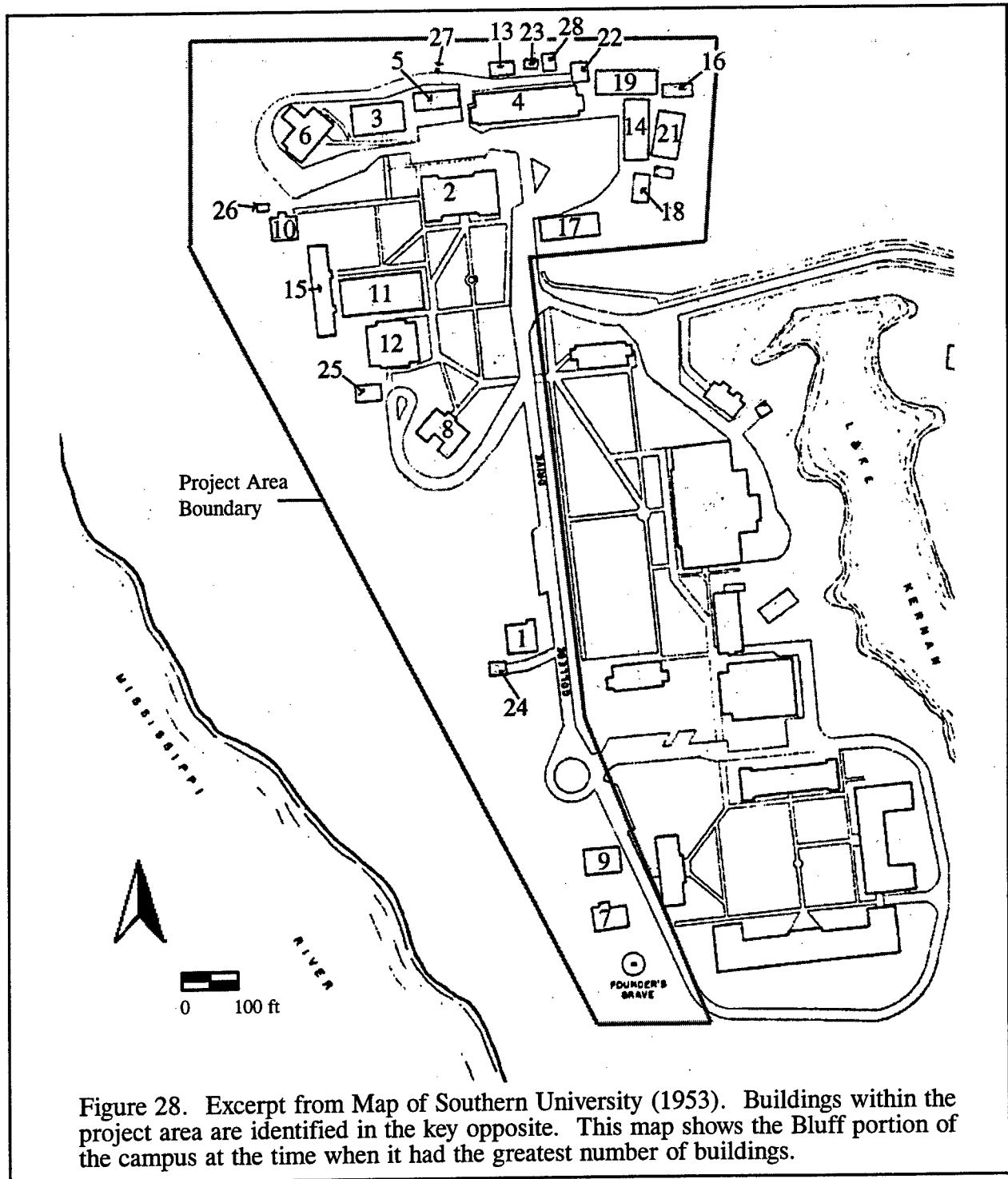


Figure 28. Excerpt from Map of Southern University (1953). Buildings within the project area are identified in the key opposite. This map shows the Bluff portion of the campus at the time when it had the greatest number of buildings.

The bluff portion of the Southern University campus was the undoubted geographic and affective focus of university life, perhaps until the process of expansion begun in the 1950s shifted many activities elsewhere. The agricultural and normal education facilities of the university were always on the eastern and northern sides of Lake Kernan and its outlet ravine. Originally, however, the central instructional buildings (both academic and vocational), plus the foremost venues of assembly for the university community at large (the dining hall and auditorium), were all located on the Bluff portion of the campus. Outdoor commencement ceremonies were held at Bluff-side until 1951, when the size of the graduating class and number of commencement guests required that the ceremony be moved to the eastern side of College Drive (*The Cat* 1951). The elevated site of the campus, with its spectacular riverside view, and the ensemble of university buildings designed in complementary fashion, must have strongly and positively reinforced student and faculty identification with, and pride in, the institution and community. At the death of the first president of Southern University at Baton Rouge, Joseph S. Clark, the university administration logically chose the Bluff as the place for his grave and monument. Clark's tomb is close to the plantation house around which Southern University developed, and therefore close symbolically to the historical point from which African-Americans have had to struggle for educational opportunities. Two revered relics of the establishment of Southern University on the old Scotland plantation are curated in the Southern University Archives. One is a small cast-iron woodstove, a reminder of the spartan physical conditions under which the University began. The other is the old plantation bell, which summoned slaves and freedmen to labor, and which rang anew to summon students to their place of learning.

Key to Figure 28: Buildings within the Project Area, 1953.

Map No.	Name of Building	Construction Date	Extant (Y/N)	Notes
1	Archives/Faculty Cottage/Placement	ca. 1840	Y	Moved 1922-1925; Enlarged
2	Academic Bldg.	1917	N	
3	Home Econ./Commerce/NROTC	1920	Y	
4	Mechanical Arts/Industrial Arts/	1921	Y	Enlarged
5	Machine Shop/ROTC Supply	1921	Y	Possible only facade is original
6	Laundry/Riverside Dorm	1922	Y	Orig. one story; dorm floor added before 1937
7	Infirmary/Old Infirmary	1923	N	
8	President's Residence	ca. 1925	N	Construction date unknown; replaced by present structure 1965-1967
9	Old Guest House/Faculty Cottage	1925	N	
10	Stenography Bureau/Faculty Cottag	1925	N	
11	Science Bldg./Administrative Bldg.	1928	N	
12	Auditorium/Chapel/M.L. Harvey	1928	Y	
13	Radio Station/AROTC Offices	1940	Y	Enlarged 1960
14	Auto Shop	1947	N	
15	Science Annex	1947	N	
16	Band Bldg.	[?]	N	
17	Cafe/Maintenance	[?]	N	
18	Central Store Room	[?]	N	
19	Education Bldg.	[?]	N	
20	Fire Truck Garage	[?]	N	
21	Furniture Repair Shop	[?]	N	
22	Garage	[?]	N	
23	Garage	[?]	N	
24	Garage	[?]	N	
25	Maintenance Warehouse	[?]	N	
26	Storage Shed	[?]	N	
27	Unknown	[?]	N	
28	Wash & Grease Rack	[?]	N	

Biographical Information on Joseph S. Clark

Joseph Samuel Clark (Figure 29) was born in 1871 in Bienville Parish, near Sparta, Louisiana. Christened Josiah, he later changed his name to Joseph. He obtained primary schooling locally in public and private schools, the latter with the assistance of white residents. During 1891-1895, he studied in the preparatory department of Coleman College, Gibsland, Louisiana, while working his way through school. After a brief period at Bishop College in Marshall, Texas, he attended Leland College, New Orleans, beginning in 1896. He received his B.A. from Leland in 1901. In 1913, he received an M.A. from Selma University, and received honorary Ph.D. degrees from Leland College in 1914 and Arkansas Baptist College in 1921. He also did postgraduate study at Harvard University and the University of Chicago (Yenser 1940:121; Logan and Winston 1982:113-114).

From 1901 to 1912 Clark was President of Baton Rouge College, which was supported by the Fourth District Missionary Baptist Association of Louisiana. During this time, he helped reorganize the Louisiana Colored Teachers Association, serving as its president from 1908 to 1915. In July 1913, Clark was named the ninth president of Southern University. He was the first African-American to hold the post and was placed in charge of making arrangements at the Scotlandville site for the University, preparing curricula, and recruiting faculty and students. Southern University and Agricultural and Mechanical College opened on March 9, 1914, with 47 students and nine faculty members. March 9 was named "Founder's Day" and has remained an occasion of celebration at Southern University. Initially, students could register for elementary school, high school, and teacher-training classes; a one-year normal curriculum was established in 1918, and a two-year normal curriculum in 1920. In 1924, a full college curriculum was offered. By 1938, the year of Clark's retirement as President of Southern University, enrollment totaled almost 2,900 students. This made Southern the largest land-grant college for African-Americans in total enrollment (second in college enrollment), and the fourth largest college (private or public) for African-Americans in the United States. The Southern campus had grown to over 500 acres, with 40 buildings valued at \$12 million. After J.S. Clark's retirement from the presidency of Southern University, he was named President Emeritus (Work 1937; Yenser 1940:121; Logan and Winston 1982:113-114).

While President of Southern University, Clark maintained a high level of other activity. During 1916-1917, Clark was president of the National Association of Teachers in Colored Schools. In 1928, he was one of six African-Americans appointed to the National Survey Committee, composed of 72 leading American educators. In 1930, President Herbert Hoover appointed Clark as a member of the White House Conference on Child Welfare and Protection, and the same year Clark declined an offer to be U.S. minister to Liberia. Hoover appointed Clark a member of the President's Conference on Home Building and Home Ownership in 1931. The following year, Clark was named a member of the Commission on Interracial Cooperation, on which he served until 1943. Clark successfully lobbied for the establishment of the Louisiana Industrial School for Colored Youth. He also secured funding for the Louisiana Negro School for the Blind and the Louisiana Negro School for Deaf Children, serving as Superintendent for both institutions. Clark was also President of the New Capitol Insurance Company of New Orleans from 1932 to 1935, and served as Director of the Peoples Life Insurance Company. Other of Clark's memberships included the National Teachers League, the National Urban League, the Land-Grant College

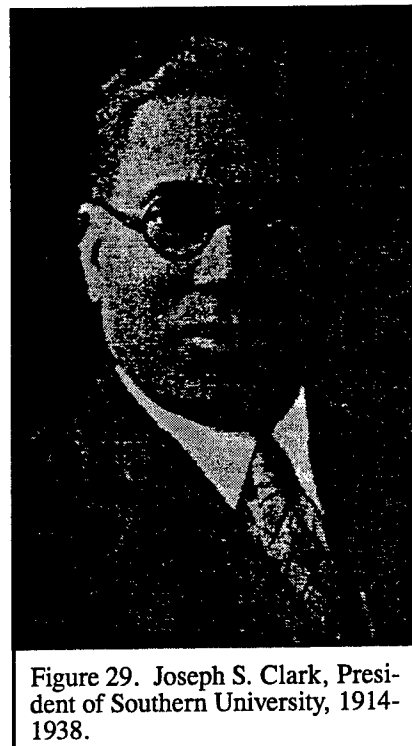


Figure 29. Joseph S. Clark, President of Southern University, 1914-1938.

President's Association, the Baptist Church, the Republican Party, the Masons, the Knights of Pythias, and the Elks (Yenser 1940:121; Vincent 1980:137; Logan and Winston 1982:113-114).

J.S. Clark's achievements were a direct result of his political and social skills. Personally, Clark was characterized as neat, punctual, disciplined, and courteous. Given to persuasion rather than contention, Clark felt strongly that courtesy could contribute to genuine goodwill between African-Americans and European-Americans. He was very successful in obtaining the cooperation and support of both races, and was widely respected as an educator. His close working relationship with State Superintendent of Education T.H. Harris was crucial during Southern University's formative stage, and his tireless work in promoting the interests of Southern University served to accomplish his dream of a 500-acre, mile-wide campus. Southern University historian Dr. Charles Vincent sums up J.S. Clark's career:

...Clark's influence on the youth of Louisiana has been profound. His numerous speaking engagements gave him wide exposure to many. His high aspirations for the young overflowed from the campus into the community and the nation. He was concerned for those who came, as well as those who did not have the opportunity to come to the University. The erection of the J.S. Clark Memorial building, the naming of many schools, libraries, parks and streets for him are memorial to his achievements...[Vincent 1980:137].

Clark was a visible presence and inspiration to the students of Southern University, speaking before them frequently. He spoke often at weekly Vespers, Wednesday-evening assemblies, and Founder's Day ceremonies, exhorting the students to hard work, personal responsibility, and their duties as examples to the entire African-American community. He was a frequent commencement speaker at other African-American educational institutions. In 1901, Clark married Octavia Head, the daughter of a Monroe minister. Their first son died at childbirth and their only other child, Felton G. Clark, succeeded his father as President of Southern University. J.S. Clark died in 1944. His tomb was formerly the scene of an annual Founder's Day ceremony (Yenser 1940:121; Vincent 1980:137; Logan and Winston 1982:113-114).

Biographical Information on Felton G. Clark

Felton Grandison Clark (Figure 30) succeeded his father, J.S. Clark, as President of Southern University in 1938. His tenure as President lasted until 1969.

Born in Baton Rouge in 1903, F.G. Clark attended Southern University from 1920 to 1922. He then attended Beloit College in Beloit, Wisconsin, receiving his Bachelor of Arts degree in 1924. He received an LL.D. from Beloit in 1946. Clark pursued graduate studies at Columbia University, receiving an M.A. in 1925. He then taught at Wiley College, Marshall, Texas, from 1925 to 1927; Southern University from 1927 to 1930; and at Howard University from 1931 to 1933. Clark received a General Education Board fellowship 1932-1933. Columbia awarded Clark a Ph.D. in 1933. Clark was Dean of the College at Southern University from 1934 to 1938, and then President. Clark inaugurated the Greater Southern University Expansion Program, which entailed both broadening of academic programs and an extensive building program. Departments of Art, Biology, Psychology, Social Science, and Sociology were established. New Home Economics and vocational programs were developed, and ROTC instituted in 1948. By 1961, over 200 Southern University graduates had been commissioned second lieutenants in the United States Army, a significant contribution of African-American officers to



Figure 30. Felton G. Clark, President of Southern University, 1938-1969.

the U.S. armed forces. The administration of the University was reformed into four colleges: Education, Engineering, Liberal Arts and Sciences, and Agriculture, with seven divisions granting degrees. Numerous major buildings were added to the campus, beginning in 1938 and continuing throughout his tenure. By F.G. Clark's retirement in 1969, Southern University was the largest public institution of higher learning for African-Americans, with over 10,000 students on its three campuses, a staff of 544 faculty members, and a physical plant valued at more than \$60 million (Fleming and Burckel 1950:102-103; Marquis 1961:540; Vincent 1980:150-160; Logan and Winston 1982:114).

Beside his university administration duties, Felton G. Clark was incredibly active in other organizations and institutions. The following list provides an indication of this level of activity: director, National Survey of Vocational Education and Guidance of Negroes; advisory committee, U.S. Office of Education Negro Radio Series, member of first and second Conferences on Problems of Negro and Negro Youth; member, National Conference on Problems in Education of Negroes; Wings over Jordan Scholarship Committee; chairman, committee on accreditation, Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools for Negroes; Louisiana Advisory Committee on Selective Service; chairman, editorial committee, Negro Land Grant Colleges Social Studies project; National Negro Sponsoring Committee, Birth Control Federation of America, Inc.; member, National Advisory Committee on Negro Education; member, Julius Rosenwald Fund Rural Council; consultant, Educational Policies Commission; president, Land Grant Colleges Presidents Conference, 1940-1941, treasurer after 1941; member, advisory committee on juvenile delinquency, Louisiana Department of Institutions; member, advisory committee on coordinating charity and welfare agencies, Louisiana Department of Welfare; advisory board to registrants, East Baton Rouge Parish; governor's representative, 50th anniversary celebration of founding of Mound Bayou, La., 1937; American Negro Exposition, Chicago, 1940; Mississippi River Discovery Expedition, Memphis, 1940; state coordinator of Civilian Defense Activities among Negroes; head, Negro Division, State Speakers Bureau; member, Board of Directors, Southern Regional Council; chairman, Negro Division, East Baton Rouge Parish War Bond Commission; member, Committee on Education, National Advisory Board; Negro Land Grant College representative for Defense training, U.S. Office of Education; member, committee on interracial services, Southern Area Council, Y.M.C.A.; member, executive control committee, Cooperative Negro College Study and Control committee, Negro Secondary School Study; gubernatorial representative, National Freedom Day, Philadelphia, 1945; president, Association of Colleges and Secondary Schools for Negroes, 1944-1945; member, editorial staff, *Journal of Negro Education*; member, committee on Southern Regional Studies and Education, American Council on Education; vice-president, national council (N.A.), Y.M.C.A., 1955; American delegate, World Centennial, Paris, 1955; member, special committee, Association of State Universities and Land Grant Colleges, 1962; member, U.S. Office of Education Advisory Committee, 1962; Advisory Panel of Educational Statistics, U.S. Office of Education, 1962; Special White House Invitational Conference on Race Relations, 1963; President, First Federal Savings and Loan Association of Scotlandville; American Association for Advancement of Science; American Academy of Political and Social Sciences; National Education Association; American Association of School Administrators; Society for Advancement of Education; American Teacher's Association; Rural Sociological Society; American Sociological Society; American Academy of Political Science; Pi Gamma Mu; Phi Beta Delta; Phi Beta Kappa; Beta Kappa Chi; Alpha Phi Alpha; Sigma Pi Phi; the Republican Party; the Baptist Church; the Masons; and the Elks (James and Burckel 1950:102-103; Marquis 1961:540; Vincent, 1980:148, 206-207).

From his youth, Felton G. Clark was recognized as a meticulous, hard worker. His philosophy of Southern University was expressed in a letter to faculty members he disseminated three weeks after being named President. Clark stated that public education "is the major process identified with making people lead a happy life." To rectify the effects of discrimination and economic hardship on African-Americans, Clark felt, "calls for the finest type of human character, a thorough-going philosophy of education, a functional possession of real knowledge and a

belief in divine purposefulness." For this to be achieved, Clark believed, there was no place "for bitterness, nor jealousy, nor selfishness nor favoritism" (quoted in Vincent 1980:149-150). He was frequently called upon to give commencement addresses at other African-American institutions of learning. Clark died one year after retirement, and the editorial page of the Baton Rouge *Morning Advocate* carried a eulogy on July 8, 1970:

...Doctor Clark's contributions to the advancement of Louisiana and all its citizens were remarkable. Many of them went unpublished, for in the delicate area of racial relations in this area for the last quarter of a century, he was a whiz at solutions acceptable to both black and white— decisions which were sometimes best executed without fanfare. He moved without apology or timidity for the advancement of the black people of this state: he acted without rancor and understanding of the feelings of both black and white [quoted in Vincent 1980:208].

Clark was interred in a sarcophagus on Scott's Bluff in 1970.

CHAPTER 6 PREVIOUS INVESTIGATIONS

Introduction

This chapter presents a short narrative describing previous archeological investigations in the vicinity of the project area. Numerous cultural resources studies have been conducted in East Baton Rouge Parish, but most of these occurred either in downtown Baton Rouge (Haag 1974, 1978; Castille et al 1979; Shafer et al 1984; Homberg and Ranmenofsky 1989; Neuman 1985; Burden and Gagliano 1977, Burden and Castille 1981a, 1981b; and Lane 1980) or well north of the present project area (Beavers 1977; Chatelain and Shenkel 1977; Spencer 1980; and New World Research, Inc. 1980). Other studies have focused on the development of the Port Hudson State Commemorative Area (16EBR42) just north of the project area (Spencer and Perry 1978, 1979a, 1979b; Kock 1980; Owsley et al. 1988; Manheim and Whitmer 1989; and Mannheim et al. 1991). These projects have amassed an impressive array of site types and artifacts. But as Perrault (1993:8) has noted, "None of these sites, however, has a bearing on the current archeological research beyond indicating there is a good potential for locating a wide variety of sites in the greater Baton Rouge area." Therefore, this discussion of previous investigations will focus on projects located within or near the immediate project vicinity. In addition, a discussion of two previously recorded resources is presented.

Previous Investigations

Most of the early cultural resources surveys conducted near the project area are related to either pipeline construction or the widening of U.S. Highway 61. Philip G. Rivet (1976a, 1976b) conducted Phase I archeological surveys of the Scotlandville to Alsen and the Alsen to Port Hudson sections of U.S. Highway 61 in anticipation of making it a four-lane highway. No cultural resources were discovered within the two right-of-ways. However, the Alsen to Port Hudson section lay in close proximity to the Port Hudson Battlefield site which had been recently accepted to the NRHP. Therefore, the potential of uncovering Civil War era material during construction was considered high.

Richard A. Marshall (1976) surveyed four proposed pipeline construction sites for Florida Gas Transmission Company during the fall of 1975. The Zachary survey area and the Port Hudson survey area are located just north of the current project area. Pedestrian surface survey failed to discover any cultural resources in these two proposed pipeline corridors. Since the Port Hudson survey area fell within the boundaries determined for the historic landmark site, Marshall (1976:12) recommended that a remote sensing survey be conducted and areas believed to contain cultural resources be minimally tested prior to the initiation of pipeline and associated tank farm construction. Furthermore, monitoring was also recommended during pipeline and tank farm construction (Marshall 1976:12).

J. Richard Shenkel (1976) conducted a Phase I archeological survey of a proposed pipeline corridor for Marathon Pipeline Company. Marathon's proposed pipeline corridor was located between Garyville and Baton Rouge, Louisiana. No cultural material or features were discovered during the pedestrian survey. As was the case with Marshall, Shenkel (1976) believed that the portion of the proposed corridor crossing the Port Hudson Battlefield site had the potential to contain Civil War era materials. Therefore, monitoring was recommended during the actual construction phase of the project.

Stephanie L. Perrault and field crew from Coastal Environments, Inc., conducted a Phase I cultural resources survey of Exxon Pipeline Company's proposed pipeline through East Baton Rouge and East Feliciana parishes. The proposed pipeline route began at Exxon's Baton Rouge refinery and traveled north to Texaco's St. Francisville tank farm. The project area was a 250 ft

(76.2 m) wide corridor, 19 mi (30.5 km) in length, containing 575.75 ac (233 ha). The Monte Sano Bayou site (16EBR17) was revisited during field investigations. No cultural remains were found at the site location (Perrault 1993:27-30). A Confederate cannon emplacement, designated Locality A, site 16EBR42, was discovered in the northern portion of the survey area and considered eligible for inclusion in the NRHP (Perrault 1993:31-36). Perrault (1993:37) recommended that the locality be avoided during construction.

Parson Engineering Science, Inc. (PECI), carried out Phase I archeological surveys for eight different 90th Regional Support Command (RSC) facilities in Louisiana during March, 1998 (PECI 1998:i). One survey area, the Marvin J. Roberts facility, is just east of the present project area. The Marvin J. Roberts facility encompassed 10 ac (4.04 ha) and is located 800 ft (243 m) from Monte Sano Bayou. Most of the facility is covered by buildings, vehicle parking lots, and sidewalks; leaving approximately 2.1 ac (0.84 ha) that could be surveyed. Seven shovel tests were excavated at the facility, and three contained cultural material. Stratigraphic analysis indicated that the strata bearing the artifacts were disturbed. No further investigations were recommended for this facility (PECI 1998:24-27).

Sites Near the Project Area

Monte Sano Bayou site (16EBR17) and the McVea site (16EBR23) are the only two previously recorded resources located near the project area. The first site has been the focus of numerous debates and is located 1.25 mi south (2.01 km) of the project area. Two diametrically opposed interpretations have been offered for the McVea site, located 4.75 mi north (7.64 km) of the project area (Neuman 1968 *cf.* Jones and Shuman 1986). Short descriptions of both sites are presented below.

Monte Sano Bayou Site (16EBR17). Although controversial, little has been published to date concerning this very important site. Field investigations at this site consist of the yet-unpublished salvage project conducted by William Haag, James Ford, and Sherwood Gagliano in 1967 and sporadic site visits since that undertaking (Jones and Shuman 1986; Perrault 1993; LA State Site Files). This site, at the time of the salvage project, consisted of two conical mounds and a midden area located on an alluvial terrace at the valley escarpment of the Mississippi River (Coastal Environments, Inc. 1977:243; Perrault 1993:27). Trenches were placed in both mounds, a surface collection was obtained from the eroded midden 200 m (656 ft) west of the mounds, and charcoal samples were obtained from a human cremation from Mound A. Field investigations clearly demonstrated that both mounds began as cremation platforms (primary mound) which were subsequently covered by one or more mantles (secondary mound). The charcoal sample yielded a corrected date of 4,240 B.C. (Perrault 1993:27). Poverty Point era traits were noted at the site and included a stylized grasshopper bead made from red jasper, Poverty Point-type microliths, and similar mound construction techniques (Coastal Environments, Inc. 1977:243).

The presence of Poverty Point era traits at the Monte Sano Bayou site has caused many archeologists to doubt the validity of the relatively early radiocarbon date from the primary mantle (Davis 1984:321-322; Neuman 1985:32; Jeter et al. 1989:93-94). More confusion occurs since some archeologists state that the sample obtained from Mound A was charred human bone (Webb 1982; Neuman 1985) instead of charcoal, despite repeated published statements to the contrary by William Haag and Sherwood Gagliano (Coastal Environments, Inc. 1977:243; Davis 1984:322; Saunders and Allen 1995:8). Doubt persisted notwithstanding the fact that the Hornsby site (16SH21) and the Campus Mounds site (16EBR6) located at LSU also yielded middle Archaic dates (Manuel 1979; Neuman 1985:27). Recent archeological research indicates that at least eight additional mound sites located in Louisiana and Mississippi date to the middle Archaic period (Saunders et al. 1994:1324-153; Saunders and Allen 1994:471-489; Saunders and Allen 1995:8-18; Saunders 1994:118-134). These new data clearly support the early date obtained from the Monte Sano Bayou site. Therefore, it is possible that aboriginal occupations potentially

located within the current project area could begin as early as the middle Archaic period.

McVea Site (16EBR23). The site was originally recorded by Robert Neuman and described as a possible mound site located on a terrace just above Devil's Swamp. Neuman collected an unspecified number of plain sherds from a field northwest of the mound (LA State Site Files). Subsequent archeological investigations indicate that the "mound" noted by Neuman was actually an erosional remnant of unspecified geomorphic origin located on the Mississippi River floodplain (Jones and Shuman 1986:74).

CHAPTER 7

FIELD INVESTIGATIONS

Introduction

Field investigations at the Southern University site (16EBR159) are described below. The rationale for trench placement is discussed first, followed by the methodologies employed during fieldwork. Descriptions and interpretations of the trenches and the associated material culture are presented.

Trench Placement

The four backhoe trenches were placed at the proposed locations of the four catch basins, the placement of which were determined by local hydrology (Figure 31). In order to facilitate interpretation of any remains which might be encountered during trenching, historic maps of the university were laid over a recent topographic map of the area to determine the former locations of the historic structures on the contemporary landscape. In addition, photographs of structures formerly located within the project area were examined to determine what, if any, architectural remains might be encountered in the trenches. Finally, utility maps provided by Southern University were inspected to insure that the trenches would not impact any extant utilities.

These data suggested that the Old Guest House/Faculty Cottage, which was built ca. 1925 and is no longer extant, was the structure sited closest to Catch Basin/Trench 1. The former site of the Old Guest House/Faculty Cottage is well west and south of Catch Basin/Trench 1 (Figure 28). Therefore, it was anticipated that excavation of Trench 1 and the construction of Catch Basin 1 would not impact any remains, structural or otherwise. However, it was suspected that Trench 1 might cross a sewer line which runs somewhat parallel to the bluffline in this portion of the project area.

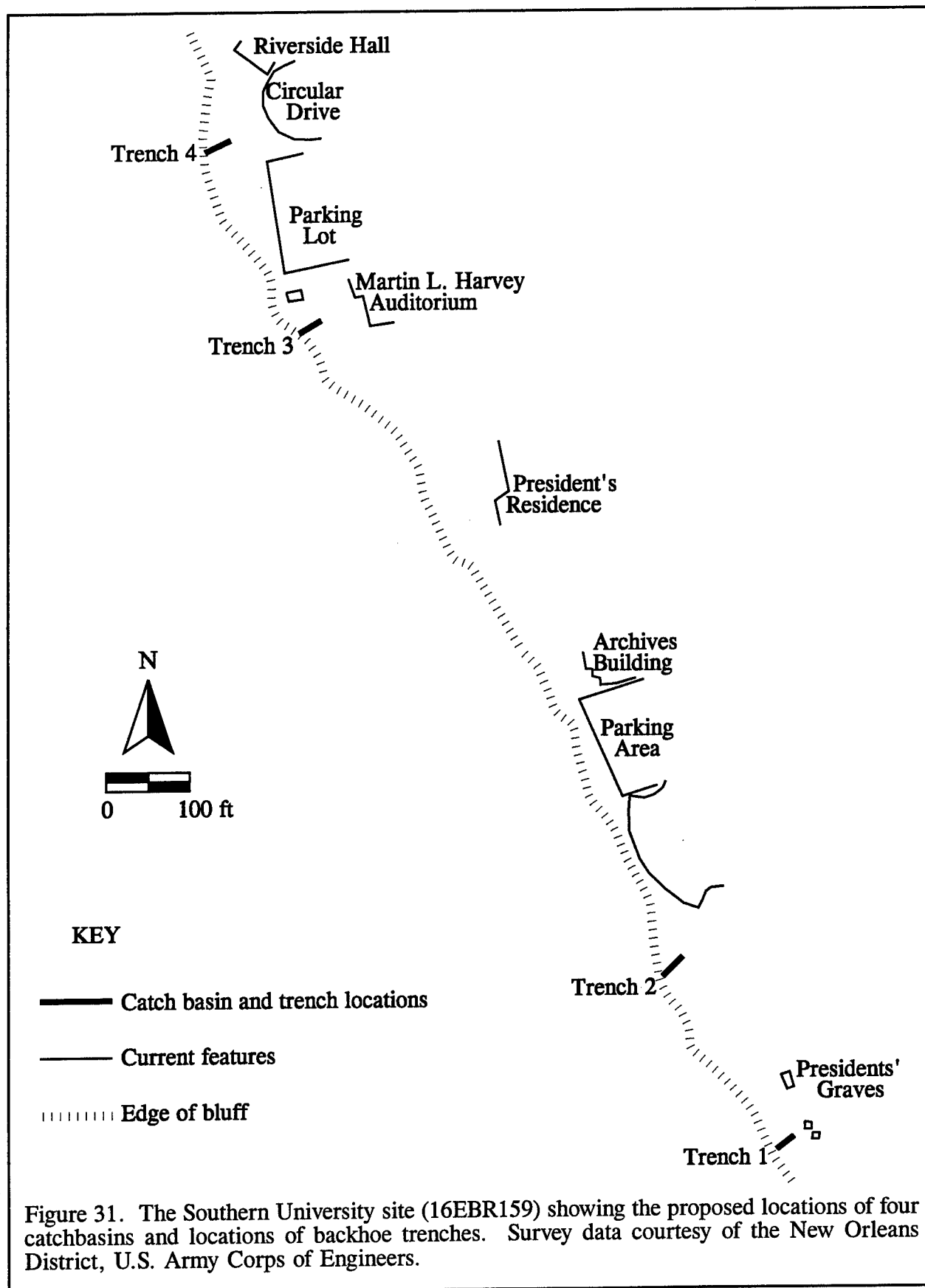
Similarly, the Archives Building is the structure located closest to Catch Basin/Trench 2, but the latter is located well south of the former. Based on the distance from this building, it was anticipated that trenching and construction would not impact any cultural deposits associated with this structure (Figure 28). In addition, it did not appear that the trench would intersect any utilities.

Catch Basin/Trench 3 is located west of Martin L. Harvey Auditorium. The distance between this structure and the proposed basin location suggested that little cultural material associated with this building should be encountered (Figure 28). However, it was anticipated that cultural deposits, if encountered, would be varied, given the public nature of the structure. Inspection of the university utility maps indicated the presence of a sewer line and an underground high voltage electrical cable at the proposed basin/trench location, and these utilities were avoided during field work.

Catch Basin/Trench 4 is located very near to the no-longer-extant Stenography Bureau/Faculty Cottage building and a small, adjacent garage immediately to the north of the Cottage (Figure 28). Thus, it was anticipated that cultural deposits associated with these structures would be uncovered during trenching. In addition, a sewer line, oriented north/south, is in the area. It therefore appeared that Catch Basin/Trench 4 had the highest potential of encountering deposits associated with the early development of Southern University.

Field Methodology

Before trench excavation commenced, all underground utilities were located and marked either by Southern University personnel or by individual utility companies. Each backhoe trench



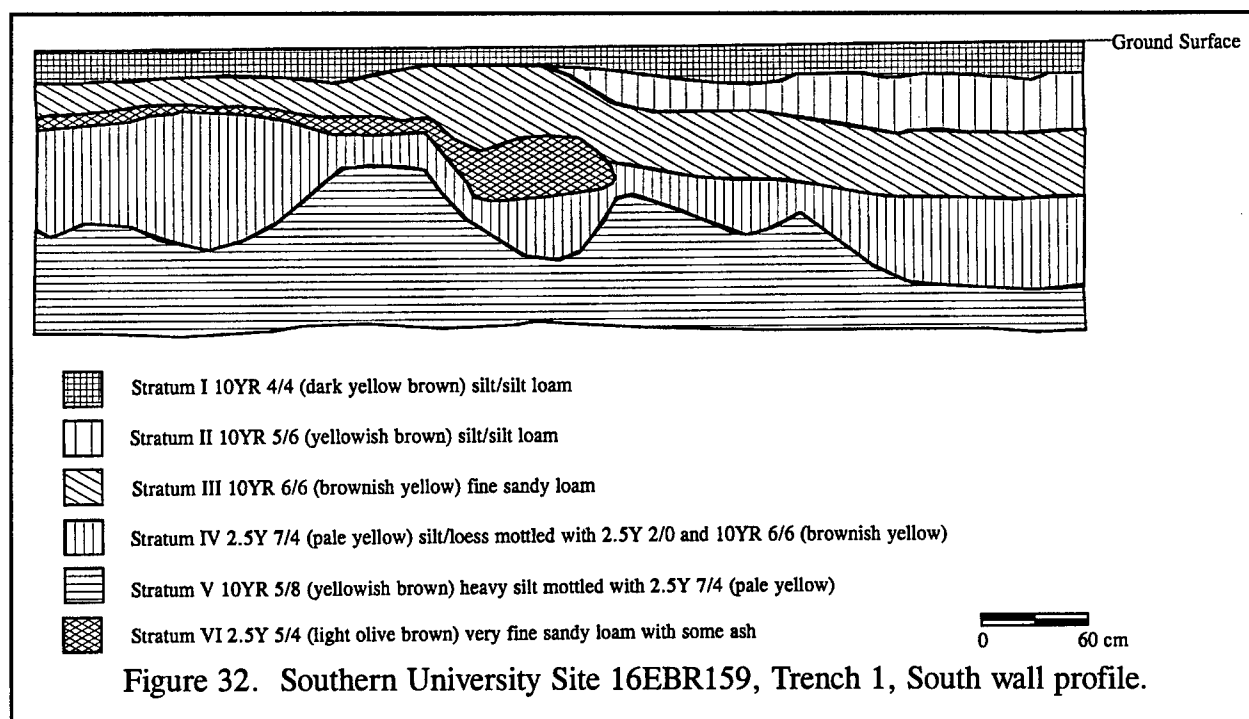
was 0.70 m (2.29 ft) wide and approximately 1.6 m (5.24 ft) deep. Trench length varied from 6 to 9 m (19.68 to 29.53 ft), depending upon local conditions. The trenches were excavated in such a manner so as not to breach the bluff edge.

During trenching, two individuals were positioned on either side of the backhoe trench, and one person examined backdirt for cultural material as it was excavated. Excavated soil was troweled but not screened, and diagnostic artifacts were collected and labeled with appropriate provenience information. Non-diagnostic material was described by soil horizon, depth below ground surface, and its horizontal location in the trench. Non-diagnostic material was not collected. Black and white photographs and color slides were taken during the course of trench excavation to document stratigraphy. One wall of each trench was cleaned and profiled. A final series of photographs were taken depicting the entire length of the excavated trench. Finally, all trenches were backfilled immediately upon completion of recordation.

Soil horizons revealed during trench excavation were number sequentially (e.g., Strata I and II). Recurring soil horizons were designated by the same number regardless of trench number and stratigraphic position. This format was utilized to avoid the needless and potentially confusing proliferation of soil horizon designations. Soil type, Munsell color, depth below ground surface, matrix inclusions, and cultural materials were described for all horizons discovered in the trenches.

Trench Excavation

Trench 1. Trench 1 is located at the extreme southern end of the project area (Figure 31). The trench was 6 m long (19.68 ft), and 1.6 m deep (5.24 ft). Excavation of Trench 1 revealed a stratigraphic profile consisting of six soil horizons (Figure 32). Stratum I, a dark yellowish brown silt loam, was noted between 0-18 cm bgs and was present throughout the entire length of Trench 1. The silt loam matrix contained a very dense concentration of small gravel as well as pockets of light gray to white clay. There was some incipient development of a humus zone at top of this stratum. Stratum II was observed between 18-45 cm bgs. Like Stratum I, this second horizon contained a very dense concentration of small gravel, but lacked the clay inclusions



described above. Stratum II occurred only in the western portion of Trench 1 and dipped downward noticeably from east to west. Concurrent with the western downward orientation was a gradual thickening of the horizon.

Stratum III is a brownish yellow fine sandy loam and was encountered generally between 45-90 cm bgs. It mimicked Stratum II in several ways. It contained a very dense concentration of small gravel, dipped down noticeably from east to west, and gradually thickened as it warped downward. Stratum IV is a pale yellow silt/loess encountered throughout the trench generally between 90-140 cm bgs. There was a notable lack of inclusions in the horizon matrix, although several *Rangia* shells was observed in the extreme western end of Trench 1. No other materials were associated with the shell fragments. The division between Stratum IV and the underlying Stratum V was abrupt and clear. Inspection of Figure 32 clearly indicates that Stratum V had an undulating surface, probably indicating some degree of erosion. Stratum V was encountered generally between 140-160 cm bgs but its uneven surface is exemplified by noting it as high as 70 cm bgs. The matrix is best described as a very dense and compact heavy silt. Bioturbation is evident in that old, decayed roots were filled with matrix from Stratum IV. Although present in the south wall of Trench 1, it was absent from the north wall, also suggesting an undulating bluff surface. No cultural material was noted in Stratum V.

Stratum VI was exposed only in the eastern half of Trench 1 and consisted of a light olive brown fine sandy loam. The horizon's maximum vertical expression was noted between 80-135 cm bgs at the extreme northwestern end of the trench. Otherwise the horizon was fairly thin, measuring only 5-10 cm thick. Stratigraphically, Stratum VI was located between Strata III and IV and dipped downward (Figure 32).

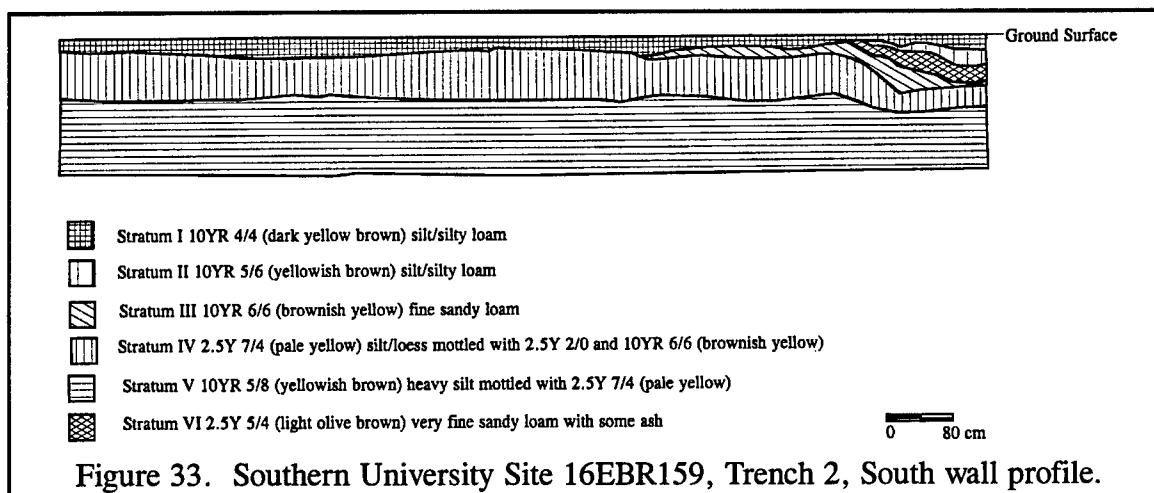
Twenty-one artifacts were collected from Strata I, IV, and VI (Table 1). The only datable material collected from Trench 1 were the bottles collected from Stratum VI. Two Coca Cola bottles were stamped with manufacturing dates of 1943 and 1949. In addition, one light green bottle was manufactured by Larsen's Glass Works sometime between 1913 and the present (Toulouse 1971:324-326). The artifacts and their contexts suggest the redeposition of materials discarded on the university campus during the late-1940s or early-1950s with more recent refuse in fill placed along the bluff line.

Table 1. Artifacts from Trench 1.

	Stratum I 0-18 cm	Stratum IV 130-140 cm	Stratum VI 80-135 cm	Total
Colorless glass	1		1	2
Amber glass			1	1
Light green glass			1	1
Coca Cola bottle			2	2
Royal Crown bottle			1	1
Light green bottle			1	1
Hawaiian Punch bottle			1	1
Milk glass screw cap			1	1
Ceramic drain pipe			1	1
3-hole brick			1	1
Solid brick			2	2
Plaster fragment			1	1
Aluminum tube fragment			1	1
Blue Crown spark plug			1	1
Gravel			2	2
Asphalt	1			1
<i>Rangia</i> shell		1		1
Total	2	1	18	21

Based on the evidence obtained from Trench 1, Strata I-III and Stratum VI are interpreted as a series of fill episodes place along the eroding edge of Scott's bluff. All these horizons contain a high percentage of small gravel in their respective matrixes, dipped notably to the west, and have a restricted horizontal expression. Strata IV and V are interpreted as natural soil horizons forming the upper portion of the old bluffline.

Trench 2. Trench 2 was placed south the Archives Building. The trench is also south of a picnic area which is parallel and immediately adjacent to the bluffline (Figure 31). Trench 2 was 9 (29.52 ft) m long, and 1.6 (5.24 ft) m deep. Excavation revealed the same six soil horizons encountered in Trench 1 (Figure 33). Two differences were noted in the respective trench profiles. Stratum VI was located between Strata II and III in Trench 2 instead of between Strata III and IV as in Trench 1. Despite having a different stratigraphic location, Stratum VI contained the same types of material observed in Trench 1. The second difference is that Strata II and III are restricted to that portion of the trench nearest the bluffline. The attenuation of Strata II and III in Trench 2 supports the interpretation that these soil deposits represent fill episodes at the bluff edge.

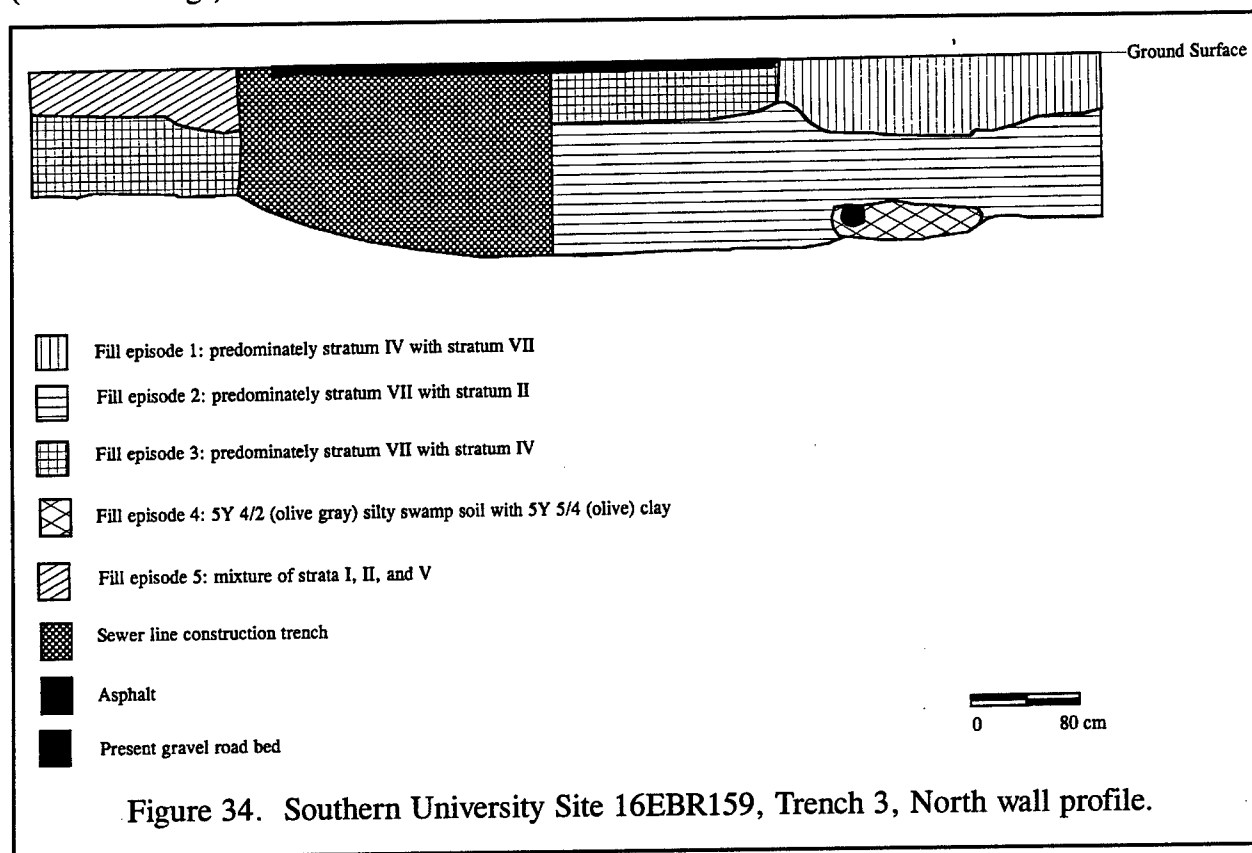


Eleven artifacts were collected from Strata I and VI in Trench 2 (Table 2). While the ironstone sherd suggests a late-nineteenth/early-twentieth century date, the majority of the chronologically diagnostic material is modern. The Coca Cola bottle was stamped with a manufacturing date of 1959, while the Barq's bottle dates to 1979. The Styrofoam indicates a similarly recent date. As was the case with Trench 1, the materials recovered from Trench 2 suggest the redeposition of older material in relatively recent fill.

	Stratum I 0-10 cm	Stratum VI 10-35 cm	Total
Ironstone		1	1
Colorless bottle		1	1
Light green glass		1	1
Green liquor/wine bottle	1		1
Coca Cola bottle		1	1
Barq's bottle		1	1
Mortar		1	1
Red ceramic tile		1	1
Brick fragments	2		2
Styrofoam		1	1
Total	3	8	11

Trench 3. Trench 3 is located west of the Martin L. Harvey Auditorium between the bluffline and a newly-established NODCOE geological recording station (Figure 31). The trench is oriented parallel to the south wall of the auditorium. Trench 3 was 8 m (26.24 ft) long, and 1.20 m (3.93 ft) deep. The eastern terminus of the trench was shifted westward to avoid the recording station, a buried 1200 pair telephone cable, and a buried 13,000 volt electrical line. In addition, a narrow limestone paved road bisects the central portion of the trench alignment. Excavation of Trench 3 revealed a stratigraphic profile containing five mixed fill episodes and a sewer line construction trench (Figure 34).

Fill soils 1, 2, and 4 were restricted to the eastern portion of Trench 3, while Fill 5 was found only in the western end of this trench. The sewer line construction trench crossed the trench area at an oblique angle, truncating Fill 3 and Fill 5. Fill 1 was noted between 0-50 cm bgs (0-19.68 in bgs) and contained a mixture of Strata IV and VII soils (Stratum VII is de-scribed



below in the discussion of Trench 4). Fill 2 consisted of elements of Stratum II mixed within Stratum VII soils and was observed between 50-130 cm bgs (19.68-51.18 in bgs). Fill 3 was noted in two different areas of Trench 3 as well as in two different stratigraphic positions. The first exposure of Fill 3 was in the eastern portion of Trench 3. Here, it was located between Fill 1 and the sewer line construction trench located in the west-central portion of the trench. This segment of Fill 3 was observed from 0-40 cm bgs (0-15.74 in bgs) and consisted of Stratum IV soils within a Stratum VII matrix. The second exposure of Fill 3 occurred in the western 1.5 m (4.92 ft) of the trench where it was observed between 30-90 cm bgs (11.81-35.43 in bgs). Fill 4 was restricted to the eastern 2 m of the trench and encountered near the base of the trench between 100-130 cm bgs (39.37-51.18 in bgs). Fill 4 is a gleyed, organic clay. Fill 5 was observed in the eastern part of Trench 3 between the sewer line construction trench and the western terminus of the trench. This fill was noted between 0-40 cm bgs (0-15.74 in bgs) and contained a mixture of soils previously described as Strata I, II, and V. Asphalt chunks, concrete, and gravel were observed in all the fill episodes in Trench 3.

The sewer line trench crossed Trench 3 at an oblique angle and was oriented northwest/southeast. This construction trench was 2.5 m wide (8.2 ft) and was 1.4 m deep (4.59 ft) when trench excavation was halted (Figure 34). Trench 3 excavation was halted after consultation with Southern University and NODCOE personnel about the threat of damage to the sewer line as a result of concrete removal. No intact cultural deposits were observed in this trench.

Fifteen artifacts were collected from Fill 1 and the sewer line construction trench in Trench 3 (Table 3). The only artifact with a tight temporal span in Fill 1 was the pepper sauce bottle which was manufactured by the Owens-Illinois Glass Company in 1951 (Toulouse 1971:264, 393). Likewise, the only chronologically diagnostic item from the sewer line trench

Table 3. Artifacts from Trench 3.

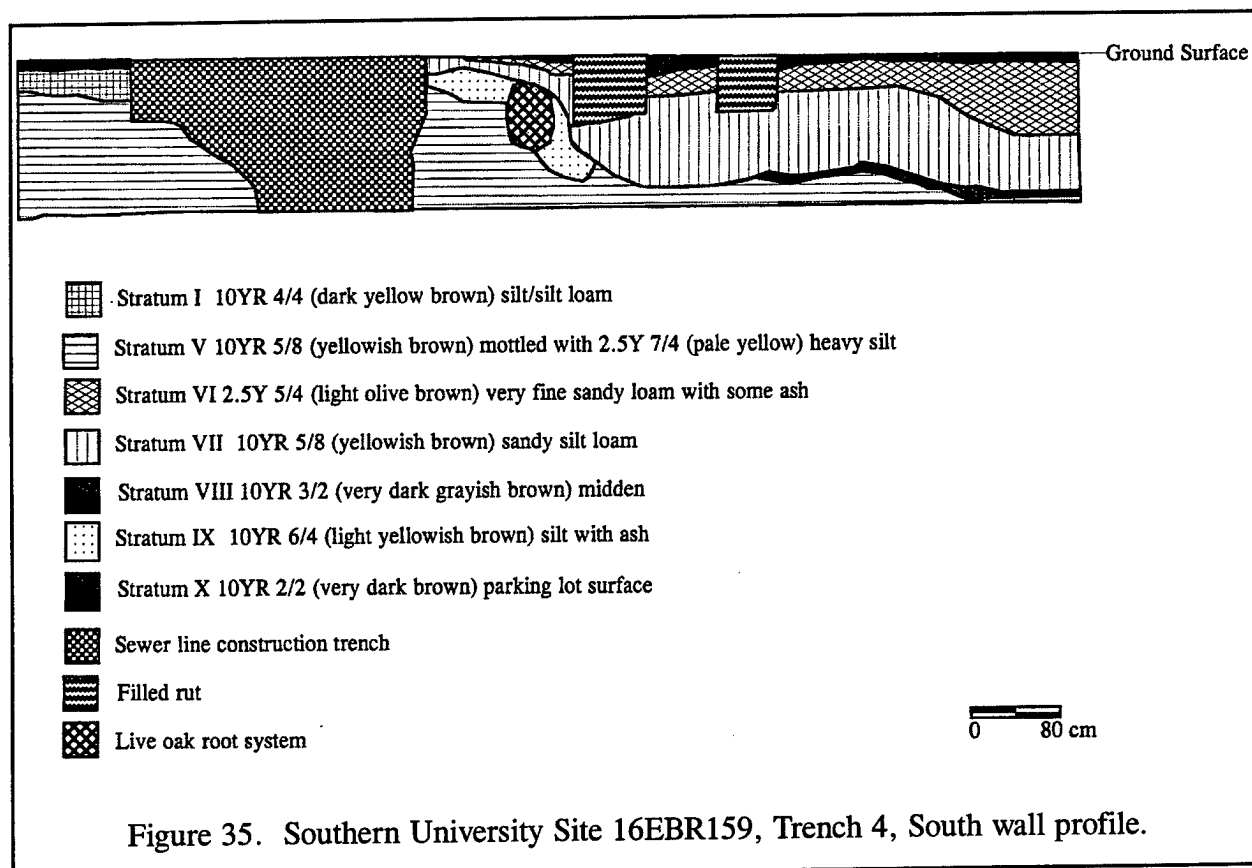
	Fill 1	Sewer Line Construction Trench	Total
	0-50 cm	0-140 cm	
Bristol glazed stoneware		3	3
Industrial porcelain		1	1
Amber glass	1		1
Pane glass		1	1
Coca Cola bottle		1	1
Pepsi Cola bottle		1	1
Pepper sauce bottle	1		1
Wire nail	1	1	2
Jax beer can		1	1
Roofing slate	1		1
Black rubber seal		1	1
Burger King plastic hand puppet		1	1
Total	4	11	15

was the Pepsi Cola bottle, which was also manufactured by the Owen-Illinois Glass Company in 1967. Obviously, the Jax beer can, which had a pop-top, and the plastic Burger King hand puppet also suggest very recent deposition. It appears that most of the fill revealed in Trench 3 was deposited in the second half of the twentieth century.

Trench 4. Trench 4 is located near the extreme northwestern boundary of the project area, southwest of Riverside Hall in a small parking area overlooking the bluff (Figure 31). The trench was 9 m (29.52 ft) long, 1.4 m (4.59 ft) deep, and was excavated west to east. Trench excavation revealed a stratigraphic profile containing seven soil horizons and a sewer line construction trench (Figure 35). Four new deposits, Strata VII-X, were encountered during trench excavation.

Stratum VII appears to represent a fairly thick fill episode located in the western portion of Trench 4. This fill was observed between 60-115 cm bgs (23.62-45.27 in bgs) and consisted of a yellowish brown sandy loam matrix. Small gravel was encountered throughout the matrix. Just above the interface of Strata VII and VIII, degraded plastic sheeting was noted at 112 cm bgs (44 in bgs). No other materials were noted in Stratum VII.

Stratum VIII is a fairly thin soil horizon interpreted as a cultural midden associated with the early development of Southern University. This horizon consists of a very dark grayish brown silt loam matrix noted between 115-119 cm bgs (45.27-46.85 in bgs). When the midden was first exposed, a portion of a round wooden post, numerous green asphalt shingle fragments, highly oxidized nails, and bottle glass lay on top of the midden. These artifacts were designated Feature 1 (Figure 36). After Feature 1 was documented, the associated artifacts were removed and exca-



vation continued. This demonstrated that Stratum VIII was restricted horizontally to western 3 m (9.8 ft) of the trench. Moreover, the profile indicated that the midden developed upon an undulating surface (Figures 35 and 37).

Stratum IX was noted only in the central portion of the trench, immediately west and adjacent to the sewer line construction trench. This horizon was observed between 15-130 cm bgs (5.9-51.18 in bgs) but was only 1 m long (3.28 ft). This radical vertical expression is due in part to the fact that Stratum IX was deposited along what seems to be a fairly steep bluff edge. Also, Stratum IX was placed around a live oak tree which was cut/died subsequent to the deposition of this horizon (Figure 35). The matrix consisted of a light yellowish brown silt loam with a high percentage of ash. Material observed in this horizon is varied and consisted of decorated ceramic sherds, large concrete and asphalt chunks, faunal remains, and glass.

Stratum X forms the extant parking area surface covering the western portion of the trench alignment. This soil matrix is a very dark brown silt loam with a moderate percentage of small gravel. No artifacts, other than very modern items, were noted in this horizon and none were collected for analysis (Figure 35).

Fifty-six artifacts were collected from Strata VIII and IX in Trench 4. The vast majority of these artifacts (n=48) came from Feature 1, Stratum VIII, while the remainder were obtained from the rest of Stratum VIII (n=2) and Stratum IX (n=4). Inspection of Table 4 indicates that most of the materials obtained from Feature 1 were architectural items. Sixteen of the glass fragments were from a one-gallon container and the other from a glass tumbler. The presence of *Duraglas* on the one-gallon container indicates it was manufactured after 1940 (Toulouse 1969). The decal sherd also dates to the first half of the twentieth century.



Figure 36. Trench 4, Stratum 8, Feature 1, at 115 cm below ground surface, facing east.



Figure 37. Trench 4, Stratum 8, Feature 1, at 115 cm below ground surface, facing south.

Two decorated whiteware sherds were recovered from Stratum IX. One was a red transfer-printed plate rim, while the other was finger-painted, or more specifically, cable decorated (Sussman 1997:18-19, Figures 23-25). Both sherds appear to date to the second quarter of the nineteenth century. These, along with the faunal material and the high ash content of the matrix indicate a domestic or kitchen functional association. However, the numerous chunks of concrete and asphalt suggest a twentieth-century date. Thus, Stratum IX is interpreted as material from an antebellum midden which was procured from some unknown source, mixed with very recent construction and architectural materials, and dumped along the old bluffline.

Table 4. Artifacts from Trench 4.

	Stratum VIII Feature 1	Stratum VIII	Stratum IX	Sewer Line Construction Trench	Total
	115-119 cm	115-117 cm	15-130 cm	0-140 cm	
Red transfer-printed whiteware			1		1
Finger-painted whiteware			1		1
Decaled modern ironstone	1				1
Colorless bottle glass	16				16
Colorless tumbler glass	1				1
Light green bottle glass			1		1
Coca Cola bottle	1				1
Wire nail	1	2			3
Burned floor tile	13				13
Asphalt shingle	12				12
Concrete			1		1
Burned wood	1				1
Cypress floor board				1	1
Cypress post	1				1
"Honey Bun" plastic wrapper				1	1
Burned rubber	1				1
Total	48	2	4	2	56

The only vertebrate faunal materials recovered from the Southern University trench excavations came from Trench 4. Five animal bones and fragments of animal bone were recovered from Stratum VIII, Feature 1, and from the sewer line trench. The only elements which could be identified to species were a left radius and a right scapula from a cow (*Bos taurus*). Fusion of the distal and proximal epiphyses of these elements could not be determined because both bones were sawed. The size of the elements and the slightly porous nature of the bones indicate that the individual was a young animal, possible a juvenile or small sub-adult. Additional elements recovered from Trench 4 include a sawed fragment from an unidentifiable large mammal and a miscellaneous phalanx from an unidentified medium-sized mammal. Also a bird humerus shaft was recovered. The element lacked diagnostic details which could be used to identify it to species. Based on the size of the element it could have come from a chicken (*Gallus gallus*) or a duck (Anatidae).

The stratigraphic profile revealed in Trench 4 suggests that the bluffline has been extended westward after Stratum VIII was deposited by at least two different dumping episodes. Inspection of the profile indicates that Stratum VIII was deposited upon a gently sloping bluff edge represented by Stratum V in the west end of the trench. This midden deposit was generally 2-4 cm thick (0.78-1.57 in). A portion of a round wood post, fragments of a wood floor board, green asphalt shingles, and several wire nail fragments were found on top of the midden. These items

probably represent materials from one or both of the razed structures which formerly stood in this area. After the architectural debris was placed on top of the midden, the bluffline was extended. The first extension of the bluffline is represented by the deposition of Stratum IX around a live oak tree which was subsequently cut. Strata VI and VII represent the second extension of the bluffline, covering Strata VIII and IX, and leveling the sloping bluff edge. Subsequently, the area was transformed into an informal parking area represented by Stratum X.

Summary

The excavation of Trenches 1-3 did not discover any intact cultural deposits. The only artifacts recovered from these trenches appear to be associated with fill deposits. Stratum VIII discovered in Trench 4 was an very thin, intact midden which was overlain by discarded architectural debris from either the razed Stenography Bureau Building or a small garage formerly located to the north of it. Stratum IX is interpreted as material from an antebellum midden which has been thoroughly mixed with recent/modern materials and redeposited in a tertiary context.

CHAPTER 8 THE ARCHITECTURE OF SCOTT'S BLUFF

Descriptions of the Scott's Bluff Buildings

The following is a description of the university buildings within the project area, presented chronologically in order of their construction. Both currently extant and demolished buildings are discussed. Figure 28 indicates the location of these structures.

The University Archives Building (ca. 1840). The Archives Building is currently listed in the National Register of Historic Places. It was constructed ca. 1840, possibly during the ownership of Dr. William B. Scott. The structure has sometimes informally been called the Kernan Plantation house, but it very probably predates ownership of the Scotland Plantation tract by the Kernan family. The National Register nomination form states that this was probably not the plantation great house. It is possible that it was an overseer's or leaseholder's residence. Originally, the Archives Building was located approximately 100 yards north of its present location and faced the Bluff. Original campus plans by Favrot & Livaudais (Figures 7 and 8) indicate that it was moved by about 1925 and rotated 180° to face College Drive. This house was the biggest and best edifice on the property when Southern University was established at this location in 1914. At that time, the house contained four bedrooms, an attached kitchen and bath, and had two large galleries or porches (one front and one back). The house was remodeled for use concurrently as the president's home, the president's office, a girl's dormitory, and an infirmary. The rear porch was enclosed to serve as a dining hall (Cade 1966:101-102; Vincent 1980:104; Louisiana National Register 1998). A current view of the Archives is presented in Figure 38.



Figure 38. Current view of the Southern University Archives Building.

The Archives Building was the focal point of the campus in its earliest years. Here, Booker T. Washington was tumultuously received by Southern faculty and students during a 1914 visit to the campus. Other visiting dignitaries received at the Archives building while it was the

President's residence and office included T.H. Harris, State Superintendent of Education, and in early years it was the center of hospitality for the Negro Farmer's conferences sponsored by J.S. Clark and Southern University. It was, for several years, a faculty cottage, and then the University placement office before becoming the University Archives building. It is currently used for general storage, while the Archives have been moved to the Library building. The Scotland plantation bell, originally located near the Archives Building, was utilized to summon students to religious devotions, classes, and study periods (Cade 1966:101-102; Vincent 1980:104, 131; Louisiana National Register 1998).

Temporary Dormitories (1914, demolished). Besides the Archives Building, several farm buildings were located on the Bluff when the tract was purchased by Southern University (Figure 7). These included a barn, a stable, some small sheds, and two old cabins. Several of the plantation-era structures were disassembled, and the lumber was used to construct two temporary dormitory buildings for male students and faculty (Figure 10). These two dormitories were located on Scott's Bluff, close to and north of the Archives Building, in the vicinity of the current President's residence. Another dormitory was also constructed, possibly elsewhere on the Bluff (Figure 11). Two plantation cabins, at least one of them on the Bluff near present-day McNair Hall (Figure 7), were refurbished. They were used to house "university families," or, possibly, unmarried men. These old farm structures and temporary dormitories were evidently demolished as soon as new brick dormitories and frame faculty cottages were constructed (Cade 1966:101-102; Vincent 1980:104; Louisiana National Register 1998).

The Academic Building (1917, demolished). Designed by Favrot & Livaudais in 1914, the Academic Building (Figure 13) was the first permanent instruction building on the Southern campus. It was completed by 1917 at the latest. It was located northeast of the M.L. Harvey Auditorium, across the loop in former College Drive and opposite the ROTC Supply building, in an area currently used as a parking lot. A three-story brick structure with relatively restrained decoration, it had a peaked parapet similar to the M.L. Harvey Auditorium, rather than the Home Economics (McNair Hall) and Mechanical Arts (AROTC) buildings. It was originally the central classroom location for academic instruction in all college subjects. It also housed the University post office. It was demolished between 1989 and 1996. The Mathes Group in New Orleans has the original Favrot & Livaudais plans for this building, Job #769.

The Home Economics Building (McNair Hall/NROTC) (1920). Designed by Favrot & Livaudais and constructed by 1920, It was originally titled the Industrial Building for Girls and was later more generally called the Home Economics Building. It subsequently housed the Commerce program, and currently houses Naval ROTC. It has been named Ronald E. McNair Hall (Figure 39). The exterior of this building has been very little altered since its construction. It is a common bond red brick building with the front entrance emphasized by conservative cast concrete labels or hood moldings, supported by simple pilasters over the doorway and two windows to either side (Figure 40). The major architectural distinction is confined to the entranceway and stepped parapet. The large fenestration is basically an arrangement of 8/2 double-hung sash and topped by an operable transom. The plain facade with a minimum of decorative brickwork and applied ornament, is essentially typical of 1920s vernacular commercial architecture rather than institutional architecture of this period. The restrained interiors, with hallways down the center and classrooms to either side, have been slightly altered with lowered ceilings and the walls covered with sheet paneling. The Mathes Group in New Orleans has the original Favrot & Livaudais plans for this building, Job #943.

The Mechanical Arts Building (AROTC) (1921). Designed by Favrot & Livaudais and constructed by 1921, it was originally titled the Industrial Building for Boys, then known generally as the Mechanical Arts building, and then the Industrial Arts Building. It currently houses Army ROTC (Figure 41). The building was originally identical in external appearance to the Home Economics Building (McNair Hall), described above. During the World War II era, this building



Figure 39. Current view of Ronald E. McNair Hall (formerly Home Economics).

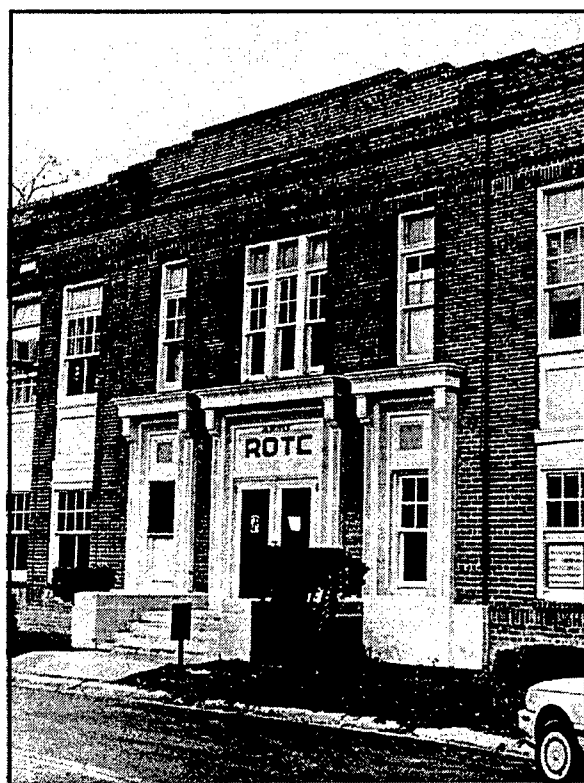


Figure 40. Front entrance of McNair Hall showing architectural details.

was extended by adding compatible subordinate flanking units separated from the original projecting center block with a slight setback. All three parts read as a single mass. Enlargement of the Mechanical Arts building corresponded with a major expansion of this program at Southern during the World War II years. This was a policy of Southern President Felton G. Clark, a leading figure in organizing and administering the African-American contribution to national defense efforts (see F.G. Clark biographical section, above). The Mathes Group in New Orleans has the original Favrot & Livaudais plans for this building, Job #944.

The Machine Shop (ROTC Supply) (1921). Designed by Favrot & Livaudais and constructed (according to Southern University records) by 1921, the machine shop for the mechanical arts program replaced an earlier temporary structure. It is currently utilized as the ROTC Supply Building (Figure 42). It is a simple single-story structure with decorative details of facade and parapet matching Riverside Hall, McNair Hall, and the AROTC Building, all originally constructed in the same period from designs by the same architects. A fire in this building in the late-1950s necessitated extensive repairs. The

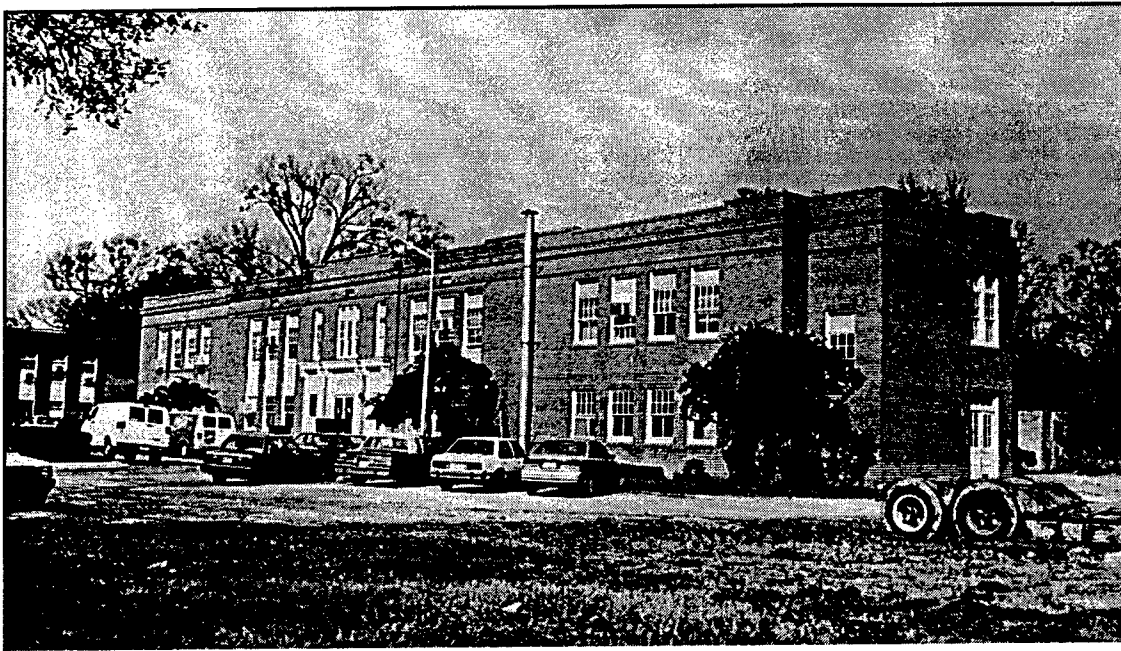


Figure 41. Current view of the AROTC Building (formerly Mechanical Arts).

original Favrot & Livaudais plans for this building could not be located at the Mathes Group in New Orleans.

The Laundry/Riverside Hall (1922). This structure was designed as a single-story building by Favrot & Livaudais and constructed by 1922 as a laundry (Figure 16). Before 1937, the building was lengthened on its western end and a second story added for use as a dormitory, and the building was named Riverside Hall (Figure 43). The lower floor continued to be used as a home economics instructional building. At the time the second story was added, the scale of the

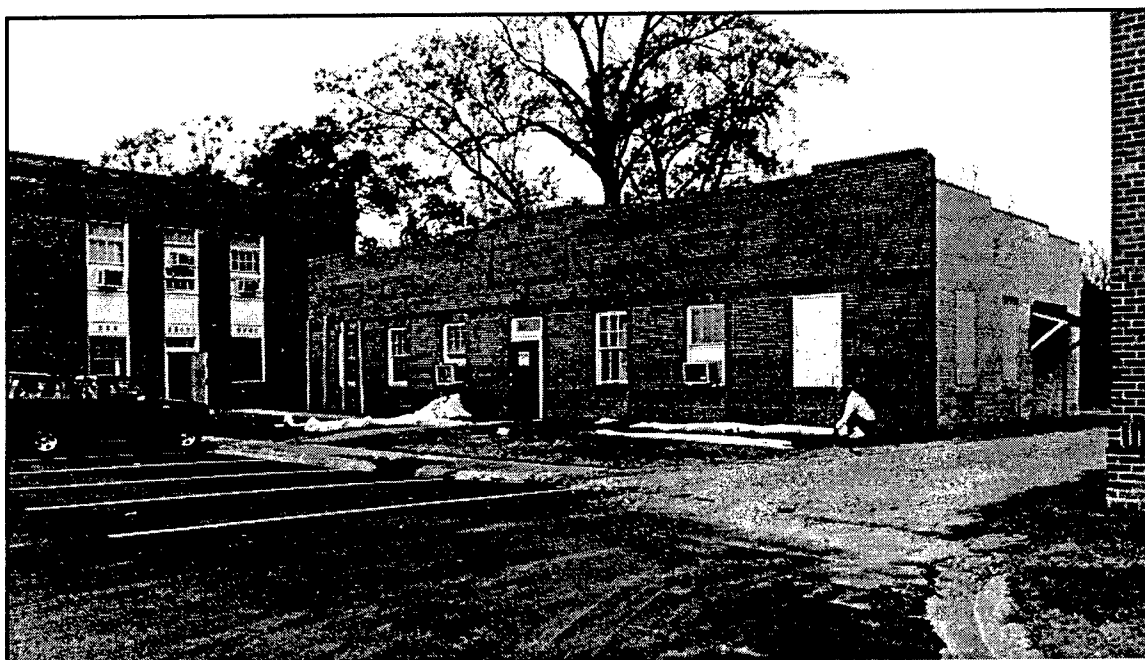


Figure 42. Current view of the ROTC Supply Building (formerly Machine Shop).



Figure 43. Current view of Riverside Hall (formerly the Laundry Building).

parapet was altered to better match the vertical dimension of the building. Other alterations included a rearrangement of the interior. The Mathes Group in New Orleans has the original Favrot & Livaudais plans for this building, Job #1135.

Old Infirmary (1923, demolished). Designed by Favrot & Livaudais in 1917, the Old Infirmary was evidently not constructed until 1923. This building was located across College Drive (G. Leon Netterville Drive) from the current infirmary, and was demolished between 1981 and 1989. It was a modest one-story wood-frame structure, in a utilitarian style resembling the frame faculty cottages constructed on the campus during the early 1920s. The Mathes Group in New Orleans has the original Favrot & Livaudais plans for this building, Job #862.

Old Guest House/Faculty Cottage (ca. 1925, demolished). This one-story wood-frame cottage was designed by Favrot & Livaudais and built ca. 1925. It was demolished between 1981 and 1989. The original Favrot & Livaudais plans for this building could not be located at the Mathes Group in New Orleans.

(Old) President's Residence (ca. 1925, demolished). Designed by Favrot & Livaudais, probably as early as 1914-1915, this building was definitely constructed by 1925. A two-story wood-frame house in the late Queen Anne style, it was demolished ca. 1965 for construction of the current President's Residence. The Mathes Group in New Orleans has the original Favrot & Livaudais plans for this building, Job #774. It was originally planned to have the exterior walls partially stuccoed, but in construction, all of the walls were covered in clapboard.

Stenography Bureau/Faculty Cottage (ca. 1925, demolished). Designed by Favrot & Livaudais, this one-story wood-frame house was built by 1925. It was used at various times as the secretarial pool office and training facility and as a faculty cottage, and was demolished between 1989 and 1994. The Mathes Group in New Orleans does not have the original Favrot & Livaudais plans for this building.

Science Building (Administrative Building) (1928, demolished). The Science building was designed by Favrot & Livaudais in 1927 and constructed in 1928 by the African-American contracting firm of Connors, Brandt, & Bell (The Mathes Group files; *The Southernite* 1979:4).

It was originally attached to the M.L. Harvey Auditorium to the south by an arcade, which remains partially standing. While in use as the University Administrative Building, this structure was occupied by demonstrating students in 1972. Two students were killed by Parish Sheriff's deputies immediately to the south of the eastern doors of this building on November 16, 1972 (see discussion below). After suffering a major fire, this building was demolished between 1989 and 1996. Its site is now partially covered by a parking lot. The Mathes Group in New Orleans has the original Favrot & Livaudais plans for this building, Job #1291.

The Martin L. Harvey Auditorium (1928). Designed by Favrot & Livaudais in 1927, the building was constructed in 1928 by the African-American contracting firm of Connors, Brandt, & Bell (The Mathes Group files; *The Southernite* 1979:4). It was originally connected to the Science (Administration) Building to its north. The relatively plain building of brick in a running bond pattern is articulated with classical details expressed in the triple arched doorways with fanlights and a cast concrete cornice under a stepped parapet. The interior was functionally designed as a large open space with a balcony but was relatively bare of decorative ornamentation. The building has been extensively altered (Figure 44). All second-story and most first-story windows have been infilled with brick. The Mathes Group in New Orleans has the original Favrot & Livaudais plans for this building, Job #1291.



Figure 44. Current view of the Martin L. Harvey Auditorium.

The M.L. Harvey Auditorium was the major place of assembly for the University community, doing double duty as the University Chapel and as the major venue for concerts and other events. Religious devotions were an important part of campus activities that students were expected to attend. Through the 1930s (at least), attendance was expected of all students at a daily noon chapel service; and through the 1950s, students residing on campus were expected to attend a Sunday morning Sunday school, Sunday Evening Vesper services, and Thanksgiving services. At Vespers, the service was led by the Vesper choir and the President or a special speaker would address the assembly of students, faculty, and visitors. Thanksgiving and Vespers were considered "high occasions;" failure to attend would bring a reprimand upon students and faculty. Resident students were also expected to attend Wednesday evening prayer services. Music was always included in the chapel services. In addition to serving as chapel, the Auditorium was the

venue for concerts, performances, and speaking appearances sponsored by the University Lyceum committee. Featured artists and personages included: Mrs. Franklin D. Roosevelt, W.E.B. DuBois, John Hope Franklin, Langston Hughes, Arnold M. Rose, Carter G. Woodson, Rayford Logan, the Fisk Jubilee Singers, violinist Joseph Knitzer, the New Orleans Symphony Orchestra, the Westminster Choir, Marian Anderson, the National Ballet of Canada, Rhoda Jordan Chamical, Leontyne Price, Ralph Ellison, Sidney Poitier, W.C. Handy, Nat "King" Cole, Arna Bontemps, Charles Werley, Mattiwilda Dobbs, William Grant Still, Lawrence Jones, Robert McFerrin, Phillippa Schuyler, Natalie Hinderas, Raymond McGuire, John O. Killen, Margaret Just Butcher, Ken Davis, Benjamin Mays, DePaur Infantry Chorus, and Mary McLeod Bethune. In addition, Southern University's own string Quartet, Glee Club, and Riverbend Players theatrical group made use of the Auditorium throughout the year.

After construction of the Auditorium, it was usual for the commencement class to assemble for a group portrait on the steps of the main entrance, and then attend a chapel program inside, before "switching their tassels" in the bluff-side outdoor commencement ceremony. After the graduating classes grew too large to pose on the steps of the auditorium, the chapel program continued at commencement. The front of the Auditorium was a frequent place of outdoor assemblies of various kinds, and for two decades the auditorium steps were also a favorite location for campus activity groups to be photographed for the yearbook.

AROTC Office (1940/1960). This is a utilitarian cinder-block structure built in 1940 and enlarged in 1960. At one time it housed the Southern University Radio Station, and is currently used for offices by Army ROTC.

(New) President's Residence (1965-1967). The current President's Residence (Figure 45) was constructed between 1965-1967 during the tenure of University President Felton G. Clark, replacing an earlier house built during the early 1920s. The President's Residence is located in the general area at which commencement exhibits were held for at least one of the first years of Southern University's existence at Scotlandville (Figure 12). At these exhibits, graduating students of the University's domestic and mechanical arts programs displayed products they had made or grown. These included: farm products; wagons, buggies, plows, andirons, furniture, masonry displays, mattresses, and brooms made by trade students; and millinery, dressmaking samples, raffia, straw and cornshuck works, canned goods, and other homecrafts made by domestic arts students. These exhibitions continued for at least a decade (Vincent 1980:128).

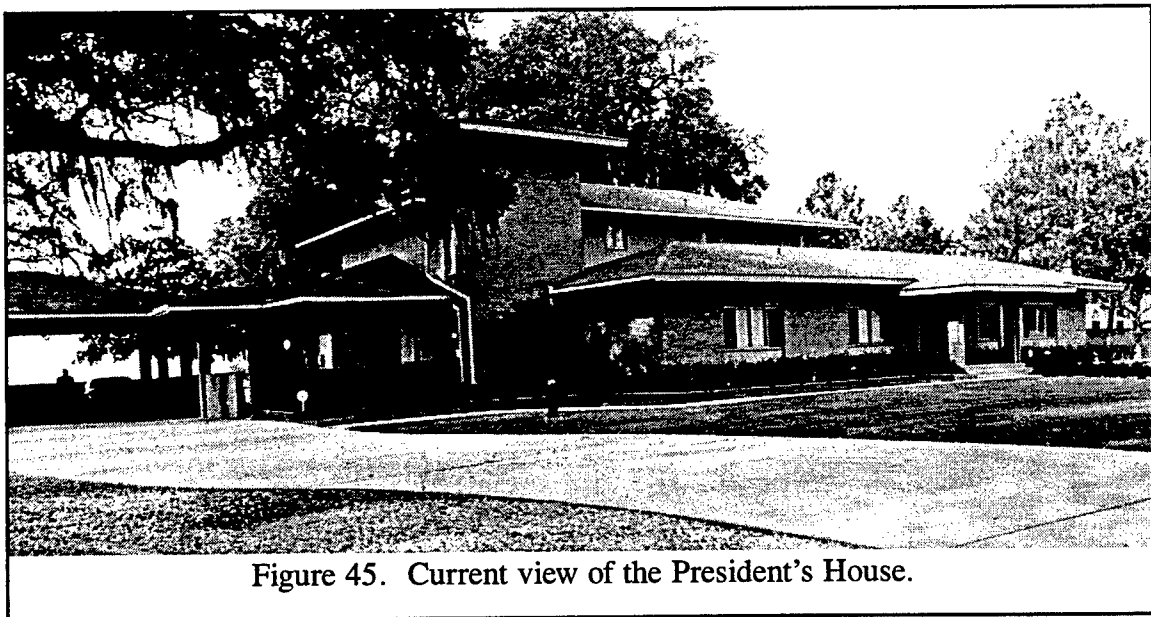


Figure 45. Current view of the President's House.

Miscellaneous Buildings (1938-1953). Several other buildings, now demolished, were located within the project area (Figure 28, Nos. 16-28). Most were small utilitarian structures built during President Felton Clark's University Expansion Program, 1938-1948. Structures labeled Nos. 24-26 in Figure 28 were wood-frame automobile garages.

Historical Markers and Monuments in the Project Area

Red Stick (Bicentennial) Monument (1976). The Red Stick Monument was placed on the Bluff in honor of the U.S. Bicentennial in 1976 (Figure 46). It was a joint project of the Baton Rouge Bicentennial Commission and Southern University. The Red Stick sculpture was created by Frank Hayden, a faculty member of the Southern University art department. Hayden also designed the nearby sundial in the stylized form of the State Seal. The Red Stick Monument, sundial, and grove of oaks on Scott's Bluff (named the "Bicentennial Oaks") were designated the Scott's Bluff Historical Landmark by the Louisiana Tourist Commission in 1979.

Clark Sarcophagi. Joseph S. Clark, first president of Southern University at Scotlandville, was entombed in this sarcophagus in 1944. His wife, Octavia Head Clark, from Monroe, Louisiana, married J.S. Clark in 1901. She was an early faculty member of Southern University at Scotlandville, serving as first Registrar and teaching music. She was entombed next to her husband after her death in 1959. Felton G. Clark, the only surviving child of J.S. and Octavia Clark, succeeded his father as President of Southern

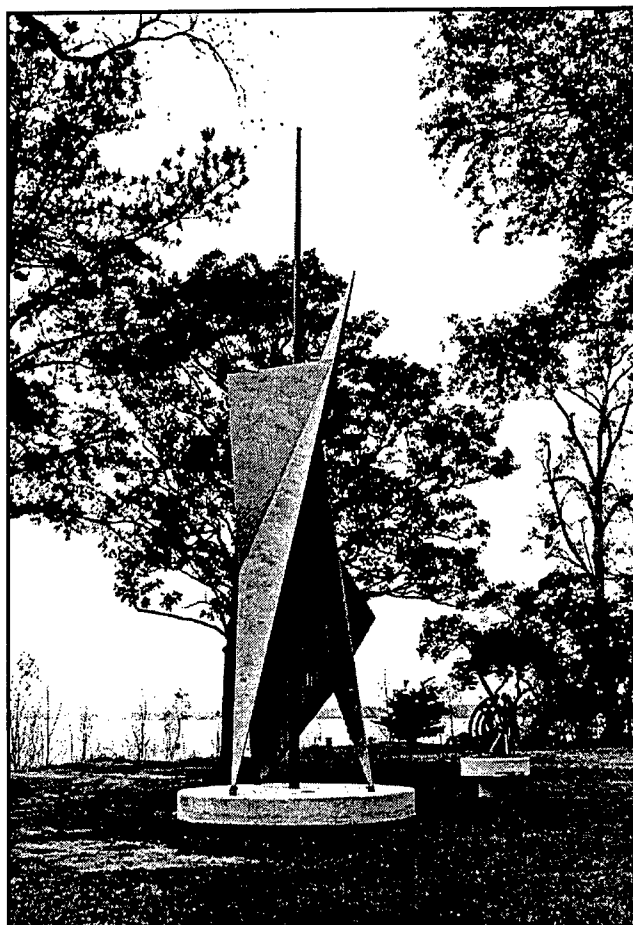


Figure 46. Current view of the Red Stick Monument.

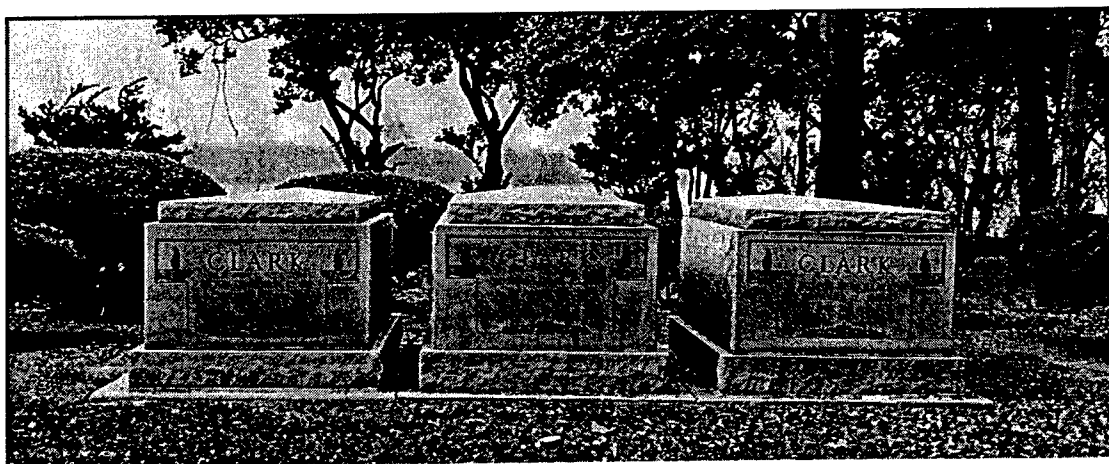


Figure 47. Current view of the Clark sarcophagi.

University. He was entombed next to his parents at his death in 1970. Biographical information on the two Clarks to serve as President of Southern University is provided in Chapter 5. The three sarcophagi are stylistically and decoratively identical (Figures 47).

P.B.S. Pinchback Historic Marker. This is a free-standing plaque commemorating P.B.S. Pinchback, governor of Louisiana (1873), who initiated the effort to establish what eventually became Southern University.

Southern University Historic Marker. This is a free-standing plaque commemorating the founding of Southern University at New Orleans in 1880 and its relocation to Scotlandville in 1914.

Scott's Bluff Historic Marker. This is a free-standing plaque commemorating Scott's Bluff as a historic site. Errors are contained in the historical information on the plaque.

Joseph S. Clark Monument. This is a bronze plaque commemorating the first president, presented by the Southern University Class of 1956 (Figure 48).

Smith-Brown Monument. To the immediate north of the M.L. Harvey Auditorium (and south of the east door of the Science/Administration Building, now demolished), is the monument to two Southern University students, Denver Smith and Leonard Brown, slain during a campus protest in 1972. The events leading up to their deaths were part of a tide of student unrest that had risen, declined, and risen again throughout the 1960s, culminating in the "Black Power" movement of the late-1960s and early-1970s. The bases of the 1972 protests were student discontent with the administration of Southern University at all levels, including the all-white Louisiana Board of Education and University President G. Leon Netterville; objections to certain faculty; and dissatisfaction with campus facilities and conditions. A student organization entitled "Students United" took a leading part in the protests, which included a number of demonstrations and marches during 1972. What some called a student "takeover" of the campus precipitated a closure of the University on October 31. The campus was reopened on November 6, and several students were arrested under a new law against damaging university property (Vincent 1980:209-217).

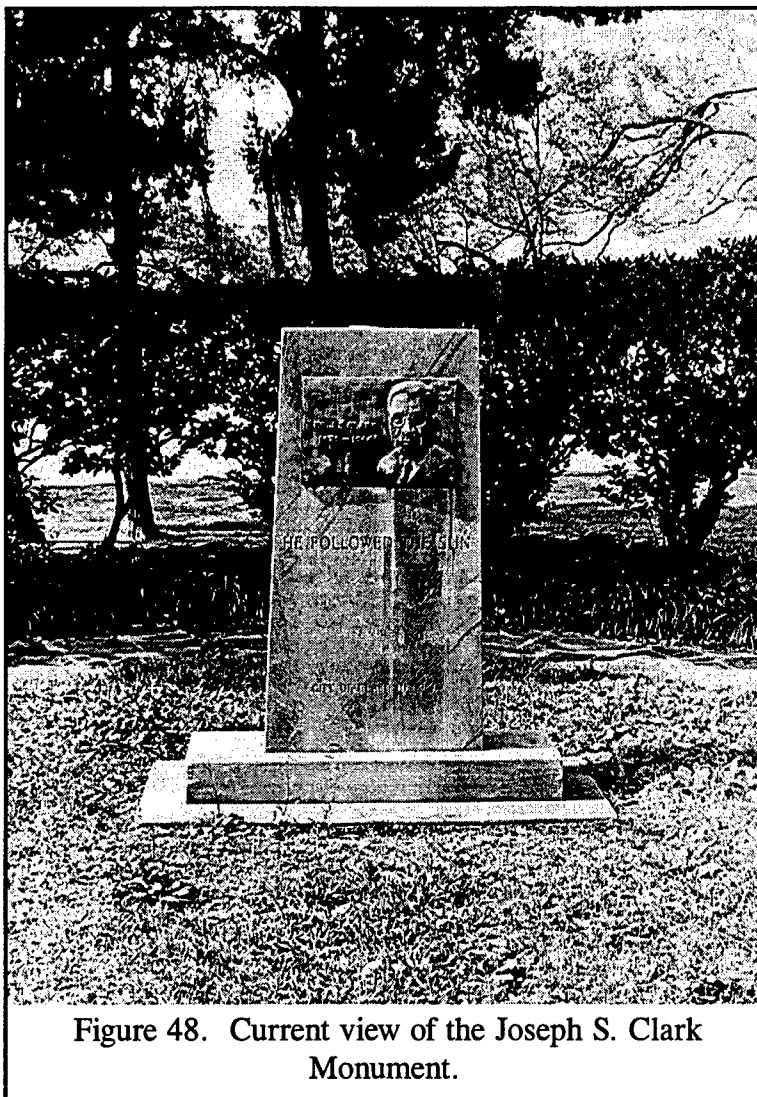


Figure 48. Current view of the Joseph S. Clark Monument.

In an already tense atmosphere, several more students were arrested at 4:00 AM on November 16th. Students United leaders and a large number of students quickly gathered at the University Administration Building (formerly the Science Building), which some of them occupied without force. State Police and East Baton Rouge Parish Sheriff's deputies converged on the campus. They were armed with 44 twelve-gauge shotguns loaded with slugs and buckshot, other shotguns loaded with tear gas shells, eleven .30-caliber carbines, three 37mm tear gas grenade launchers, one .30-30 cal. rifle, two M-1 carbines, one 7.62mm rifle, two AR-15 semiautomatic rifles, one .35 caliber rifle, two .45 cal. Thompson submachine guns, and their police sidearms. The students were ordered to leave the building and disperse. When many of the students failed to respond, a tear gas canister was fired into the crowd, but students threw the canister back at the police. A barrage of tear gas canisters followed. One sheriff's deputy fired live shotgun ammunition into the students; two students were hit, Denver A. Smith of New Roads and Leonard D. Brown of Gilbert, Louisiana. Both were 20-year old sophomores. One died at the scene and the other died in a hospital operating room later that day. Governor Edwards ordered the University closed, Baton Rouge was declared to be in a state of Emergency, and several hundred National Guardsmen were rushed to Baton Rouge and the Southern Campus (Vincent 1980:217).

The deaths of Smith and Brown were a major trauma for the Southern University community and drew national attention to student unrest and racial tensions in Baton Rouge and Louisiana. After lengthy Federal, State, and private investigations, no one was punished for the deaths of Smith and Brown. Of six deputies who had been in the area from which the shot came, five submitted to polygraph examination; one refused and hired a lawyer. No charges were ever brought against any trooper or deputy in the case.

The granite monument (Figure 49) commemorating Smith and Brown is placed at the location of the shooting. The memorial was obtained through the efforts of the Southern University Student Government Association and local businessman William Garrett in 1977-1978 (Vincent 1980:217-218).

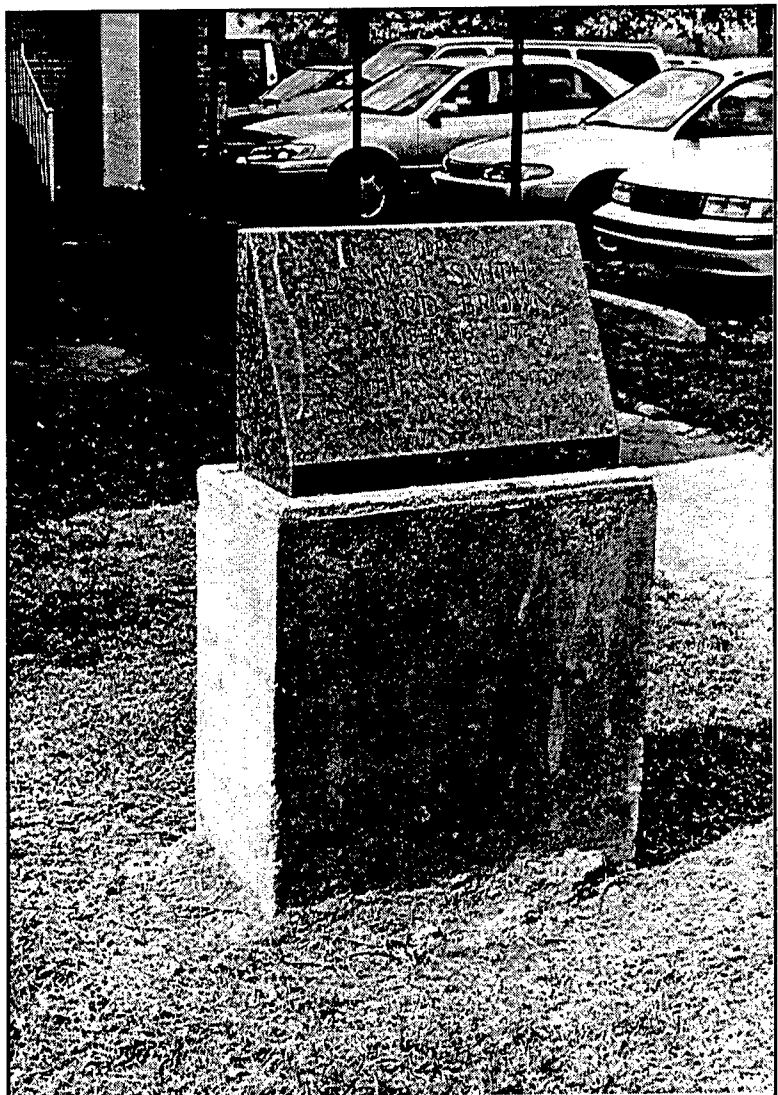


Figure 49. Current view of the Smith-Brown Monument.

CHAPTER 9 RECOMMENDATIONS

No intact cultural deposits were discovered during excavation of Trenches 1, 2, and 3, therefore, deposits contained within these trenches do not possess any research potential and are not eligible for inclusion in the NRHP. The intact midden deposit (Stratum VIII) discovered in Trench 4 measures only 2 to 4 cm in thickness. The ephemeral nature of this deposit within this trench makes it unlikely that it will yield data important to our understanding of history. Furthermore, the Stratum VIII lies at 1.15 m bgs (3.77 ft bgs) and will not be impacted by Catch Basin 4, which will attain a maximum depth of 0.60 m bgs (2 ft bgs). Thus, construction of the catch basins will not impact any significant cultural resources. It is recommended that construction of Catch Basins 1-4 be allowed to proceed without additional archeological investigations. However, it is possible that cultural remains, specifically a sawmill at the outlet for Lake Kernan, might be preserved beneath the bluff slope. If Phase II construction of erosion protection along the bluff slope will involve subsurface disturbance, this area should be examined archeologically.

The beginnings of Southern University in Baton Rouge exemplify the incredible obstacles which faced African-American educational institutions in the first half of the twentieth century. The very notion of a "negro" college was preposterous to many if not most whites. Racism impeded the location of a site for the University in Baton Rouge; white landowners simply did not want to be near such an institution. The establishment and subsequent growth of the University was impeded by woefully inadequate funding. Despite innumerable impediments, Southern University has grown to one of Louisiana's leading universities. Its early growth, and thereby ultimately, its success, is due in very large part to the considerable efforts of Joseph S. Clark, Southern's first African-American President. Clark was unquestionably one of the foremost African-American educators in the United States during the early-twentieth century, and during his tenure as President, the University grew to the largest land-grant college for African-Americans in total enrollment (second in college enrollment), and the fourth largest college (private or public) for African-Americans in the United States.

The University's beginnings in 1914 were in the former plantation buildings located on the Bluff. Of these structures, the Archives Building survives. In addition, the initial expansion of the University was along the Bluff during the 1920s. Five of these buildings, the Home Economics Building (McNair Hall/NROTC), the Mechanical Arts Building (AROTC), the Machine Shop (ROTC Supply), the Laundry/Riverside Hall, and the Martin L. Harvey Auditorium, are still extant. Throughout the first half of the twentieth century, university life was clearly centered on the Bluff; it was the site of commencements and exhibitions as well as instruction, religious functions, and social activities. The entombment of the first two African-American Presidents of Southern University on the Bluff emphasize both the University's recognition of this area as the heart of the campus and of these two men's singular contribution to Southern's success. Thus, the Bluff portion of Southern University, because of its importance in African-American educational history, is significant under Criterion A. Because of its association with Joseph S. Clark, the Bluff portion of Southern University is also significant under Criterion B.

It should be noted that while graves are not ordinarily considered eligible for inclusion in the National Register of Historic Places, they may be eligible if they meet certain requirements (Potter and Boland 1992:1). Potter and Boland (1992:16) state:

Historical figures of outstanding importance in local State or national history usually are more vividly associated with the places relating to their productive lives than with their graves. Gravesites may be far removed, geographically, from the setting of the individual's momentous activities.

However, in this case, the location of Joseph S. Clark's sarcophagus is on the property best associated with his "momentous activities." In such cases, graves do not have to be justified under Criteria Consideration C (Potter and Boland 1992:16). Therefore, Joseph S. Clark's sarcophagus is a contributing element to the property.

The Bluff retains integrity of setting and feel as well as association, as seen in Figures 50 through 52. The noncontributing elements in this property in no way detract from the historicity of the setting. In fact, the vast majority of these, as commemorative markers, only further emphasize the continuing perception of the Bluff as the symbolic center of the university. Furthermore, two of these, Felton G. Clark's sarcophagus and the Smith-Brown Monument, are only non-contributing elements because of their age. The President's residence, although constructed in the 1960s, is sited among large live oaks, which lend an historic feel to this otherwise contemporary structure.

Seifert (1995:2) states:

Consider the historic use of the property when selection the boundary. *The eligible resource may include open spaces, natural land forms, designed landscapes, or natural resources that were integral to the property's historic use* [emphasis added].

As seen in the above, the entirety of the Bluff was integral to the property's historic use. Furthermore, the bluff possesses the quality of integrity. Thus, the bluffline represents the "appropriate setting" which Seifert (1995:2) states should be included within the boundaries of an eligible resource:

Select boundaries that define the limits of the eligible resources. Such resources usually *include the immediate surroundings and encompass the appropriate setting* [Seifert 1995:2, emphasis added].

Therefore, the Bluff portion of Southern University is eligible for nomination to the National Register as an Historic District. The boundaries of the District are the unnamed outlet to Lake Kernan on the north, Netterville Drive (College Drive) on the east, the Kaiser Aluminum property line on the south, and the bluffline (Figure 53) on the west. It should be noted that planned construction of the catch basins will have a beneficial effect on the property; the catch basins will have no visual effect on the integrity of the setting and they will prevent further erosion of the bluffline.



Figure 50. Current view of the Southern University campus, looking north from in front of the President's Residence. Shown are the M.L. Harvey Auditorium, Riverside Hall, McNair Hall, the ROTC Supply Building, and the AROTC Building.



Figure 51. Current view of the Southern University campus, looking northeast from the Bluff behind the M.L. Harvey Auditorium. Shown are Riverside Hall, McNair Hall, the ROTC Supply Building, and the AROTC Building.



Figure 52. Current view of the project area looking north from the Red Stick Monument, showing the Clark sarcophagi and the Archives Building.

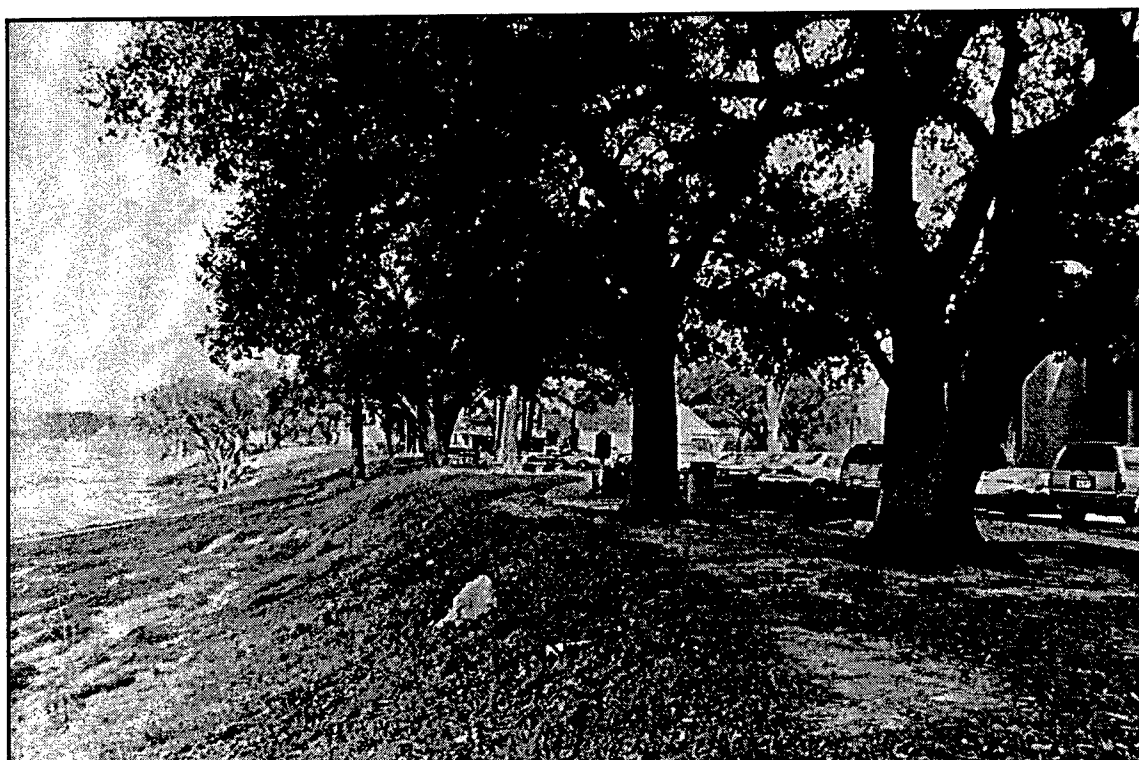


Figure 53. Current view of the project area, looking north from behind the Clark sarcophagi, and showing erosion of the Bluff edge.

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ARCHIVAL SOURCES

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Archives of Spanish West Florida (ASWF)
Conveyance Office Books (COB)
Original Township Maps
Succession Flat Files

The Mathes Group, Inc., New Orleans
Favrot & Livaudais Files

Southern University and Agricultural and Mechanical College, Scotlandville, LA
Facilities Planning Department
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J.S. Clark Papers
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Tulane University, New Orleans
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Southeastern Architectural Archives
William T. Nolan Collection
Howard-Tilton Memorial Library, Microfilm Collections
U.S. Census 1810, Baton Rouge County
U.S. Census 1820, East Baton Rouge Parish
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United States Army Corps of Engineers, New Orleans District (NODCOE)
Engineering General Files
Aerial Photographs

Watson Memorial Library, Northwestern State University, Natchitoches, LA
Thomas H. Harris Papers

APPENDIX 1

SCOPE OF SERVICES**Historical Research and Archeological Survey
Of Historic Portion of Southern University,
Baton Rouge, Louisiana**

1. Introduction. The historical research and archeological survey to be performed under this delivery order is in support of a National Register eligibility determination of the historic portion of Southern University and Corps plans to stabilize the Mississippi River bankline of the campus. The New Orleans District is now investigating the erosion problem along the Mississippi River edge of the Southern University campus. The historic name for this area is Scott's Bluff and this bluff is the original site (ca. 1914) of Southern University in Baton Rouge.

The New Orleans District is planning a two-phased solution to the erosion problem along Scott's Bluff. The first phase consists of the construction of a small ridge along the bluff edge to prevent water from flowing over the bank. Accompanying this ridge will be the installation of approximately five catch basins to capture the rain runoff and deposit it at the foot of the bluff. The second phase of the project will consist of erosion protection along the slope of the bluff.

2. Study Area. The area under study is the historic portion of the Southern University campus containing a number of buildings dating to the 1920s, the gravesites of three former university presidents, and a 1980 sculpture commemorating the university's centennial and the historical location of the "red stick" for which Baton Rouge is named (attachment 1). Recent photographs of the area under study are provided as attachment 2.

3. Background Information. The Southern University Archives Building, which is located within the potential historic district, is already listed on the National Register of Historic Places. Our initial research has indicated that there exists a wealth of documentation in the form of a 1981 university history, old campus plan maps, and historic photographs and yearbooks. The potential historic district appears to possess a high degree of historical association with persons and events important in the history of the university. Historical integrity appears to be a significant issue.

In a November 10, 1998 letter, the Louisiana SHPO has provided their preliminary evaluation of a possible National Register District on the bluffs at Southern University (attachment 3). In this letter, the SHPO has concluded that the northern portion of the study area is likely to be determined an eligible National Register District. Besides the need to document and support this

preliminary conclusion, several issues are identified in the letter that will need to be addressed during this evaluation. These include the boundaries of the historic district, whether the existing Archives Building should be included, and the disposition of the gravesites and sculpture.

4. Study Requirements. The study will be conducted utilizing current professional standards and guidelines including, but not limited to:

- the National Park Service's National Register Bulletin 15 entitled, "How to Apply the National Register Criteria for Evaluation;"
- the National Park Service's National Register Bulletin 16 entitled, "Guidelines for Completing National Register of Historic Places Forms;" and
- the Secretary of the Interior's Standards and Guidelines for Archeology and Historic Preservation as published in the Federal Register on September 29, 1983.

5. Historical Research. The study will begin with research of available literature and records necessary to establish the historic context of Southern University, Baton Rouge. The background research will focus on establishing the study area's history and, in particular, the evolution of the landscape from 1914 to the present. This research will address the historical context, as well as the architectural elements of the study area, and the potential for archeological resources related to Southern University or earlier occupations of the study area.

6. Archeological Survey and Management Summary. After completion of the initial research, the contractor will perform archeological survey of the five proposed catch basin locations. This survey will be sufficient to determine if significant archeological deposits will be affected by the installation of the catch basins. Within four weeks of award of the delivery order, the contractor will deliver three copies of a management summary documenting the results of the survey to the COR. The management summary will provide all information required by the Louisiana Division of Archaeology.

7. Preparation of National Register Evaluation Forms and Survey Report. The Scott's Bluff portion of Southern University will be evaluated against the National Register criteria and within the framework of the property's historic context to assess its eligibility for inclusion in the National Register.

One copy of the National Register Registration Forms for the study area will be delivered to the COR within 8 weeks after delivery order award. This documentation will be completed on NPS supplied computer forms and shall contain all of the data required by NPS National Register Bulletin 16 with the exception of photographs and maps required under "additional documentation."

Three copies of the cultural resources survey report documenting the archeological survey performed for the proposed catch basins will be submitted within 8 weeks after delivery order award. This report is expected to be a brief report with abbreviated sections on culture history.

The COR will provide review comments to the Contractor within 6 weeks after receipt of the draft National Register documentation and survey report. Upon receipt of the review comments, the Contractor shall incorporate or resolve all comments and submit three copies of the final documentation and 40 copies of the survey report to the COR within 2 weeks (16 weeks after work item award). The Contractor will also provide computer disk(s) of the documentation and report in Microsoft Word for Windows, and WordPerfect 5.0 for DOS.

8. Attachments.

1. Study Area Map
2. Photographs of Study Area
3. Letter from SHPO dated November 10, 1998